TOWER'S

Common School Grammar;

WITH

MODELS OF CLAUSAL, PHRASAL AND VERBAL

ANALYSIS AND PARSING;

GRADUALLY DEVELOPING THE

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.

MACON, GEO.:
PUBLISHED BY J. W. BURKE.
1860.

AUBURN UNIVERSITY
LIBRARIES

Presented by

Mr. R. A. McCreary

Spec
PE
1111
.T73
1860

NON CIRCULATING

NON CIRCULATING

TOWER'S

COMMON SCHOOL GRAMMAR;

WITH

MODELS OF CLAUSAL, PHRASAL, AND VERBAL

ANALYSIS AND PARSING;

GRADUALLY DEVELOPING THE

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.

BY

DAVID B. TOWER, A. M.,

AUTHOR OF "GRADUAL LESSONS IN GRAMMAR," AND SEQUEL; "ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR;" "GRAMMAR OF COMPOSITION;" "ORAL ALGEBRA;" READERS, ETC.

MACON, GEO.:
PUBLISHED BY J. W. BURKE.
1860.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1852, by
ANNA E. TOWER,
In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the District of Massachusetts.

Stereotyped by
HOBART & ROBBINS,
New England Type and Stereotype Foundery,
BOSTON.

PRINTED BY
GEORGE C. RAND & AVERY.

Spec
PE
1111
.T73
1860

FEB 16 '77
DENOX

PREFACE.

The study of Grammar properly comprises a knowledge of the principles of language, and facility in its use. This knowledge is not attained by committing to memory many words about Grammar, nor by learning numerous technical distinctions, with little perceptible difference.

The facts of Grammar, so far as settled, are prominent, and should not be subjected to unnecessary subdivisions.

When these facts are illustrated, and the principles deduced from them are mastered by the understanding, the practical application of them in clausal, phrasal, and verbal Analyses and Parsing, will lay the foundation for construction. To facilitate this, much use has been made of models, to stimulate the student, as well as guide his efforts.

If it be found that a principle or rule in this Grammar differs verbally from the same in the "Elements," be satisfied that it is well for intellectual growth, that a thought should have several suits of clothing, and be recognized in each — that it should impress itself, not by its garb, but independently of wardrobe.

In this respect, however, there is little to disturb the most conservative verbalist.

The wants of the school-room, the wishes of teachers, and the demands of the public, have been considered, and an effort has been made to meet them; with what success, it remains for educators to say, to whose candid judgment this work is most respectfully submitted.

The time has come when *writing one's own language correctly* is an essential part of education; and every year, parents, school committees, and the community will give it more prominence, till it holds a place in school studies commensurate with its importance.

To facilitate the labors of teachers in this direction, a "Grammar of Composition" has been prepared, and is now extensively used.

It is not intended that this Grammar should supersede the use of the "Grammar of Composition."

The means of attaining to excellence in any art is twofold; by a study of its principles and by judicious exercise. The design of this work is,

chiefly, to aid the young, by the definitions and models of analysis here given, to a knowledge of grammatical principles: that of the Grammar of Composition is to furnish an intelligent, systematic, and abundant exercise in those principles.

The analytic process, which has been so long relied on, in this branch of instruction, has signally failed; pupils have been taught to analyze the most difficult sentences, who yet are unable "to speak and write correctly." The principles of grammar are of little practical benefit till, from frequent and continued use, they are recognized and observed unconsciously.

The author avails himself of this opportunity to express his grateful acknowledgments to Benjamin F. Tweed, Esq., Professor of Rhetoric and Belles-Lettres in Tufts College, for many valuable suggestions in the preparation of this work.

D. B. T.

PUBLISHERS' PREFACE.

The "ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR, OR FIRST LESSONS IN LANGUAGE," so favorably received, so strongly commended, and so extensively used, at the very start, has steadily increased in circulation and popularity, till, it is said, no text-book on this subject is so successful, or gives such universal satisfaction.

Out of this popular use of the "ELEMENTS" has grown an urgent demand for another Grammar, on the *same plan*, more full in particulars, and more extended in application, to meet the wants of advanced pupils, and to complete a preparatory course to COMPOSITION.

In complying with this request, urged from every quarter, we have thought it best to have such a text-book prepared, as would meet the expressed wish of teachers on this point, and at the same time furnish a preliminary course.

The book, then, is intended as a School Grammar, complete in itself; yet so far a further development and continuance of the plan adopted in the "ELEMENTS," that it will most advantageously *follow* that book. The "Gradual Lessons in Grammar," which was the FIRST *System* of ANALYSIS published in this country, has been highly praised by the most prominent educators; but it is not on the plan of the "ELEMENTS," and therefore does not well follow it. Hence the call for a new book.

These Grammars, with the "GRAMMAR OF COMPOSITION," make a full course in the study of written language, and in the application of the principles of grammar to *Composition*.

School committees and teachers are invited to examine them.

C. N. & CO.

CONTENTS.

PAGE

PRELIMINARY REMARKS ON LANGUAGE 9

INTRODUCTION TO COMMON SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

Language — A sentence 11

Subject. Predicate — Exercises 12

PARTS OF SPEECH.

Noun and verb — Exercises 13

Adjective and adverb — Exercises 15

Preposition — Exercises 16

Simple and compound sentences — Clauses 17

Conjunction — Exercises 17

Phrase. Personal pronoun 18

Relative pronoun. Article. Adjective pronoun. Participle. Interjection 19

Exercise on relative pronouns 20

COMMON SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

Definitions 21

ETYMOLOGY.

Noun. Pronoun 22

Common and proper nouns 23

Abstract. Collective 24

Gender 25

Number 29

Person 34

Case 36

Model 38

Forms for parsing a noun and a pronoun 39

Declension of nouns and pronouns 40

Model 41

VERB.

Regular and irregular 43

Transitive and intransitive 44

Model 46

Active and passive 47

Progressive form 48

Mood 50

Tense 54

Auxiliaries 55
Exercises in construction 56
Number and person 56
Forms in common style 57
Forms in ancient or solemn style 58
Formation of the tenses in the active 59
Principal parts of the verb 60
Forms of the verb "BE" in common style 60
Forms of the verb "BE" in ancient style 61
Passive and progressive formations 62
Synopsis of the passive form of the verb "HIDE" 62
Conjugation 63
Conjugation of the verb "BE" 64
Conjugation of the verb "LOVE" 66
Model 70
Conjugation of the verb "TEACH" — active form 72
Conjugation of the verb "TEACH" — passive form 74
List of irregular verbs 76
Defective verbs 80
Impersonal verbs 81
Forms and properties of verbs 81
Forms for parsing the verb and participle 82
Model 82
ADJECTIVES 84
Comparison 85
Form for parsing 87
Model 87
ARTICLES 89
Form for parsing 91
Model 91
PRONOUNS 93
Properties 94
Form for parsing 94
Model 94
COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS 97
Declension 97
Properties 98
Form for parsing 98
Model 98
ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS 99
Kinds 100
Form for parsing 100
Model 101
RELATIVE PRONOUNS 102
Declensions 103
Model 103

Compound relatives 105
Model 105
Interrogative pronouns 106
Model 106
Kinds and properties of relative pronouns 107
Form for parsing 107
ADVERBS 107
Clauses 108
Interrogative 109
Comparison 109
Connective 110
Kinds and forms 110
Form for parsing 110
Model 110
PREPOSITIONS 112
List of 113
Model 114
CONJUNCTIONS 115
Model 116
INTERJECTIONS 118
Model 119
INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX 120
Clause. Sentence. Phrase 121
Examples of analysis 122
SIMPLE RULES OF SYNTAX, WITH MODELS AND EXERCISES UNDER EACH.
Rule I. Subject 125
General directions 126
Rule II. Predicate 126
Rule III. Adjectives 128
Rule IV. Articles 129
Rule V. Adverbs 130
Rule VI. Objective after prepositions 132
Rule VII. Object of a verb 133
Rule VIII. Possessive case 135
Rule IX. Nominative in the predicate 136
Rule X. Apposition 137
Rule XI. Noun independent 138
Rule XII. Noun independent with participle 140
Rule XIII. Interjections 141
Rule XIV. Participles 142
Rule XV. Infinitive 143
Rule XVI. Conjunctions 145
Rule XVII. Prepositions 146
Rule XVIII. Pronouns 147
Rule XIX. Relative pronouns 149
Rule XX. Connective adverbs 150

Rules of Syntax, with Illustrations and Exceptions in Arrangement and Construction, with Models, Remarks, and Exercises under each.
Rule I. Subject-nominative 151
Rule II. Finite verb 155
Rule III. Adjectives 158
Rule IV. Articles 162
Rule V. Adverbs 165
Rule VI. Objective after prepositions 169
Rule VII. Objective after transitive verbs 174
Rule VIII. Possessive case 178
Rule IX. Predicate-nominative 181
Rule X. Apposition 184
Rule XI. Noun independent 187
Rule XII. Noun independent with participle 189
Rule XIII. Interjections 191
Rule XIV. Participles 192
Rule XV. Infinitive mood 195
Rule XVI. Conjunctions 198
Rule XVII. Prepositions—remarks 202
Rule XVIII. Pronouns 205
Rule XIX. Relative pronouns 209
Rule XX. Connective adverbs 211
Classification of Words 214
Figures of Syntax 215
Rhetorical Figures 216
Punctuation 217
Separation of sentences 217
" " clauses 217
" " phrases 218
" " words 219
Other marks 219
Use of Capitals 220
Prosody 221
Feet 221
Iambic verse 222
Trochaic verse 223
Anapestic verse 225
Dactylic verse 226
Amphibraic verse 226
Mixed heroic verse 227
Mixed Alexandrine verse 229
Mixed minor verse 230
Poetical pauses 231
Cæsural pauses 232

PRELIMINARY REMARKS ON LANGUAGE.

MAN is so constituted that it is not good for him to be alone.

The wants of his physical, intellectual, and moral nature, show that he was intended for society. Some method of communicating thoughts, feelings, desires, purposes, &c., would, consequently, be necessary; otherwise, though surrounded by those of his own kind, he would lose much of the benefit to be derived from social intercourse.

The first efforts to communicate we may suppose to have been by natural signs, consisting chiefly of gestures and changes in the expression of the countenance. This means of communication would, however, be very limited, and often cumbersome.

In order, then, to extend the power of communicating, as well as to render it easier, the sound of the human voice, with its wonderful powers of modulation, would afford a convenient and flexible instrument. It was, probably, in some such way as this that artificial language was formed; affording, at the same time, the means and the sign of intellectual and moral development in the race.

Among the first efforts to communicate by the voice, simple sounds, and combinations of sounds, would naturally be used as names of sensible objects; so that the utterance of these sounds would recall the image or conception of an object when it was no longer present to the sense. Hence the *noun*, one of the most important parts of speech.

At a very early stage in the development of language it would become necessary to communicate the actions or doings of men, animals, &c., and to make some assertion respecting the objects which had been named. This would give rise to another important class, called *verbs*. With these

two classes, coherent speech would be possible; and the other classes might be developed as circumstances should render them necessary to give precision, accuracy, and facility to expression.

So far the object of language, in giving the means of converse with persons present, would be accomplished. The want, however, of the power to communicate with those not present, without making a third person the confidant of the speaker, must eventually suggest the idea of representing these sounds by signs addressed to the eye. Hence written language, which, though primarily intended merely for this purpose, is now, by the imperfection of alphabets, and the attempt to preserve the etymology in words derived from other languages, so complicated as partially to obscure the original design.

It is, however, of the English language only that we propose to treat; but, since all language marks the development of the human mind, and as the human mind is essentially the same in all nations and ages, the general principles of all languages are alike. For instance, though we have greatly enriched the English language by borrowing from the Latin and others, it is said that in no instance have we adopted a grammatical power, but only words — which either have been, or are now in process of becoming, Anglicized. It is to the Anglo Saxon that we are indebted for the grammatical principles of the present English; the only influence of other languages in that department being this — that certain grammatical forms which existed in the parent tongue were dropped, because these new contributions from other languages would not readily and gracefully submit to them. Thus, instead of six declensions of nouns, as in the Anglo Saxon, and several regular modes of forming the plural, our present English has retained but one declension, only one inflection for case, and but one regular mode of forming the plural. It should be observed, however, that these are retained from the Anglo Saxon, — the original basis of the language, — and not adopted from those languages which have supplied us with so many new words.

INTRODUCTION

TO

COMMON-SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

1. LANGUAGE affords a convenient method of communicating our thoughts and feelings.

2. It is of two kinds; spoken and written.

3. Spoken language is addressed to the ear; written language, to the eye.

4. Language is composed of words combined in such a manner that they express thought.

5. A word in *spoken* language is a simple sound, or a combination of sounds, used as the sign of an idea.

6. A word in *written* language consists of a letter, or a combination of letters, used as the sign of an idea.

7. ORTHOËPY treats of the elementary sounds, and their combination in spoken words.

8. ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters and their combination in written words.

9. A SENTENCE is a number of words containing complete sense, or a sentiment, and followed by a full pause.

For what purpose is language used? What are the two kinds? What is the difference between the two? Of what is language composed? What is a spoken word? A written word? What is Orthoëpy? Orthography? A sentence?

10. A sentence may be either spoken or written.

11. The word, or combination of words, which suggests the person or thing spoken of, is called the SUBJECT of the sentence; as, *Birds* fly.

12. The word, or combination of words, which asserts something of the subject, is called the PREDICATE of the sentence; as, Birds *fly*.

EXERCISES.

Birds fly. John runs. Man works. Trees grow. Snow melts. Girls learn. George has recited. Vice degrades. Charles has written. Virtue ennobles.

What is the subject of the first sentence? Why? What word is used to assert something of "birds"? What is it called? Why?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions on each of the above examples.*

13. Every sentence *must* contain a subject and a predicate.

DIRECTION. *Make sentences by supplying* predicates *asserting something of the following words, to be used as* subjects *of sentences.*

Boys ——. Dogs ——. Hens ——. Men ——. Ice ——. Water ——. The horse ——. Children ——. Plants ——. Fishes ——.

DIRECTION. *Make sentences by supplying* subjects *about which the following words, to be used as* predicates, *may assert something.*

—— skate. —— swim. —— will be rewarded. —— sings. —— play. —— will be promoted. —— will shine. —— was praised. —— talk. —— studies. —— sleeps.

How may a sentence be expressed? What is called the subject of a sentence? The predicate? What must every sentence contain?

PARTS OF SPEECH.

Although there are many thousand words in the English language, they are usually distributed into a few classes, called *parts* of *speech*.

14. The subject of a sentence is the NAME of that of which something is said or asserted.

15. The *name* of a person or thing is called a NOUN; as, *Boys* play.

REMARK. The word "thing" is here used to include not only any object that can be perceived by the senses, but whatever may be made an object of thought.

EXERCISES.

Girls study. Ice melts. Water freezes. William reads. Hope cheers. Virtue will be rewarded. Soldiers march. Dogs bark. Grass grows. Ships sail.

What is the subject of the first sentence? Of what is it the name? What part of speech is it? Why?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions on each of the above exercises. The teacher can extend this exercise, and all that follow, indefinitely, by aid of the blackboard, slate, or reading-book, till pupils can readily recognize the* noun.

Supply a noun *for each of the following* predicates.

—— fly. —— drink. —— run. —— studies. —— live.
—— walk. —— grow. —— eat. —— swim. —— ride.

16. The predicate of a sentence is the word which is used to *say* or *assert* something of the subject.

17. A word which can be used to *assert* is called a VERB; as, Boys *play*.

What is the subject of a sentence? What is a noun? What is the predicate of a sentence? What is a word that can be used to assert called?

EXERCISES.

Horses run. Tops spin. Ice melts. Grass grows. Ships sail. Anna skates. Water freezes. Men talk.

What is the predicate in the first sentence? For what is it used? What part of speech is it? Why?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions on each of the above sentences. This exercise can be continued on the slate, &c., at the discretion of the teacher.*

Supply verbs *asserting something of each of the following nouns.*

Officers ——. Soldiers ——. Pupils ——. John ——. Streams ——. Cats ——. Mary ——. Dogs ——. Kites ——. Snow ——. Birds ——.

REMARKS. Let it be observed that verbs *may* be used to assert, but that they are also used for several other purposes.

Thus the word *give* is a verb because it may be used to assert; as, "We *give* bread to the hungry."

The same word may also be used for several other purposes, and still be a verb; as, "*Give* me my due;" — a *command*. "*Give* us this day our daily bread;" — a *petition*. "Who will *give* us all we wish?" — a *question*.

18. In the preceding exercises, the noun and verb only — the *essential parts* of a sentence — have been used.

19. The *subordinate* parts of a sentence explain or modify the statement made by the essential parts; that is, by the *subject* and *predicate*.

EXERCISES.

Studious boys learn. Three men came. Good boys obey. Four white horses ran. Liberal men give. Constant effort succeeds. Honest labor exalts.

What are the *essential* parts of the first sentence? What is the *subordinate* part? For what is it used?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions respecting each of the above exercises.*

What are the essential parts of a sentence? What the subordinate?

20. Words which directly modify, describe, or limit nouns, are called ADJECTIVES; as, *Studious* boys learn.

NOTE. A modification or limitation is called *direct*, when it is effected without the use of a preposition; as, *Wealthy* men; — *indirect*, when the modifier is connected with the word modified, by a preposition; as, Men of *wealth*.

What word describes "boys" in the first of the exercises under article 19, on the preceding page? What part of speech is it? Why?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions respecting each of those exercises. Make the* adjective *familiar by the slate, &c.*

Supply adjectives *modifying, describing, or limiting, the nouns, in the following exercises. Continue such exercises on the slate, &c., till the pupil is familiar with this part of speech, and its use in language.*

—— apples fall. —— men work. —— weather chills. —— knives cut. —— boys learn. —— horses ran.

21. Words which directly modify verbs are called ADVERBS; as, John studies *diligently*.

NOTE. In this class are embraced those words which directly modify adjectives and adverbs.

EXERCISES.

Anna studies diligently. Charles will soon be here. Very studious boys recite well. Men should give more liberally. John watched less faithfully. Henry worked most industriously. Less diligent pupils learn less rapidly.

1. In the *first* exercise, what word tells *how* "Anna studies"? What part of speech is it? Why? What part of speech does it modify?

2. In the *second* example, what word tells *when* "Charles will be here"? What part of speech is it? Why? What word tells *where* "Charles will soon be"? What part of speech? Why? What part of speech do they both modify?

What are words which directly modify nouns called? What are words that directly modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, called?

3. In the *third* example, what word tells *how* "boys recite"? What part of speech is it? Why? What part of speech does it modify? What part of speech is "studious"? What noun does it describe? What word increases the force of "studious"? What is it called? Why? What part of speech does it modify?

4. In the *fourth* example, what word tells *how* "men should give"? What part of speech is it? Why? What part of speech does it modify? What word is used to increase the force of the word "liberally"? What part of speech is it? Why? What part of speech does it modify?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions respecting the rest of the above exercises, and fill the following blanks with adverbs, modifying the* verbs *in respect to* time, place, manner, *or* circumstance; *and the* adjectives *and* adverbs *in* degree.

John came —— this morning. The horses ran ——. The men —— act ——. Charles studied —— faithfully. Father will —— return. The boy was —— eager to learn. The —— industrious pupils progress —— rapidly. —— studious boys learn ——.

DIRECTION. *Continue similar exercises on the slate and otherwise, till the use of the* adverb *is familiar.*

22. A noun may be used as a modifier by prefixing a connecting word; as, Men of *wealth*.

23. The word connecting a modifying noun with the word modified is called a PREPOSITION; as, Men *of* wealth.

EXERCISES.

Men of wisdom are respected. The lecture on music will be repeated. A man of wealth should be liberal. John went to Boston. The boy was eager for praise. James lives in Cincinnati. William has returned from Philadelphia.

In the first exercise, is it asserted that "men are respected," without reference to the kind of men? What word is used to modify or limit men? What part of speech is it? What word connects the limiting noun with the word limited? What part of speech is it? Why?

What is the word called that connects a modifying noun with a modified word?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions, &c. Extend the exercise, if necessary, by the blackboard, slate, and reading-books.*

24. A simple sentence has one subject and one predicate; as, Charles studies. Henry plays.

25. Two or more simple sentences united, form a compound sentence; as, Charles studies, and Henry plays.

26. Simple sentences, when united to form a compound sentence, are called clauses; as, *Charles studies*, and *Henry plays.*

27. A word used to connect simple sentences is called a CONJUNCTION; as, Charles studies, *and* Henry plays.

REMARK. In uniting simple sentences, many words that are alike in each need not be repeated; as, John will go to New York. James will go to New York. Uniting the two sentences, John and James will go to New York.

EXERCISES.

William lost a book, and John found a knife. Peter and John went up into the temple. James studied and recited his lesson. The boy is playful and happy. The man worked diligently and faithfully. Samuel works, but Charles plays. William will go to New York or Philadelphia.

1. Into how many simple sentences may the first compound sentence be resolved? What are they? What word connects them? What part of speech is it? Why?

2. Of what two simple sentences is the second exercise composed? What words are alike in the two? Are these words repeated in the compound sentence? What conjunction is used in the sentence?

DIRECTION. *Ask similar questions, &c. Extend the exercise in the Readers, if necessary.*

What is a simple sentence? What is a compound sentence? What are the parts of a compound sentence called? What is a word used to connect simple sentences called?

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *In each of the following exercises connect the simple sentences by* conjunctions, *without unnecessarily repeating the words common to both, and extend the exercise on the blackboard or slate, and in reading-books.*

It rained yesterday. It snows to-day. — The man was learned. The man was not contented. — The horse went to drink. The cow went to drink. — The father sat on the doorstep. The son sat on the ground. — James came home late. John came home late.

DIRECTION. *Tell the* conjunction, *and what it connects, in each of the following exercises.*

John and James went to Boston. John or James went to Boston. Not John, but James, went to Boston. James, and not John, went to Boston. The man was good and great. The man was good or great. The man was good, but not great. John studied well and faithfully. I saw John and James. I saw not John nor James. I saw John or James. I saw not John, but James. John reads and writes. John reads or writes.

A PHRASE consists of two or more words modifying some part of a sentence, assuming rather than asserting, and consequently not having a subject and predicate, which are the essential parts of a clause; as, Men *of wealth* should give *with great liberality* = Wealthy men should give very liberally. Here the first phrase is equivalent to an *adjective;* the second, to an *adverb*. The man was remarkable *for strict integrity* and *for great industry*. Here the two phrases are connected by the conjunction "and."

28. REMARKS. The parts of speech already enumerated comprise all the grammatical functions of words, as used in forming sentences. Besides these, however, there are certain classes which, while they possess no new grammatical power, do not answer completely the definitions of those we have named.

29. The PERSONAL PRONOUN, for example, is merely a *substitute* for a *noun* with no function peculiar to itself, but capable of being used in the same relations as the noun. It differs from the noun only in not being the *name* of an object; as, John lost *his* ball = John lost John's ball.

What is a phrase? How does a phrase differ from a clause? For what is the personal pronoun a substitute?

30 The RELATIVE PRONOUN is the grammatical equivalent of a noun and conjunction; as, Here is the horse *which* father has bought; that is, *which* is equivalent to "and him"; as, Here is the horse, and *him* father has bought.

31. The ARTICLE enters into the construction as a limiting adjective. Only *a* or *an*, and *the*, are called ARTICLES; as, *a* horse, *an* egg, *the* boy.

32. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS perform the grammatical function of an adjective, and, with one or two exceptions, may be used, by ellipsis, in the relation of nouns, as most adjectives may; as, *Some* boys will learn, and *some* will not.

33. So with the PARTICIPLE. It is sometimes used as an element in the formation of a verb; sometimes as an adjective; and sometimes as a noun, without losing its governing power as a form of the verb; as, Virtue will be *rewarded*. The gentleman *seeing* me, came and spoke of *meeting* you.

34. The INTERJECTION is an abrupt exclamation, used to express passion or emotion. In the early development of language it expressed, perhaps, what now requires a subject and predicate. It embodied the thought, and was an undeveloped sentence. It is a condensed substitute for a sentence, and generally a commentary on the succeeding sentence; as, *Alas!* the remedy came too late. Grammatically it is not considered as connected with other words. Still it has a logical dependence, though no recognized grammatical relation.

REMARK. Though these classes involve no new grammatical functions or relations, yet a few exercises will assist the pupil in recognizing them.

EXERCISES ON THE PERSONAL PRONOUN.

The book belongs to James, for he bought it. Father gave a sled to the boys, and they thanked him for it. Harry bought skates for his sister, and gave them to her. William gave a book to Mary, and she read it.

Of what is the relative pronoun an equivalent? How does the article enter into the construction of a sentence? What grammatical function do adjective pronouns perform? How may they be used? In what is the participle used as an element? In what other relations is it used with governing power? For what is the interjection used?

In the first example, what word is used to represent "James"? How do we avoid the repetition of "book"? What word is substituted for "book"? What are these substitutes called?

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil point out the* personal pronouns *in the other exercises and tell what each is substituted for.*

The teacher can extend this exercise by letting the pupil find examples in his "Reader," and analyze them as above; or by requiring examples to be put on the blackboard, and analyzed by a class; or each pupil may prepare exercises on his slate, illustrating his daily lesson.

EXERCISES ON RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Here is the man who saved the boy's life. Here is the house in which John lives. There is the girl whose bonnet was lost. John sold the horse which father had bought. Find the ball that was lost.

What word is used, in the first example, to avoid the repetition of the word "man"? How would the sentence read by inserting "and he," instead of "who"? Is "who" substituted for a *connective* as well as for the noun "man"? What is "who" called? What two clauses does it connect?

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil point out the* relative pronouns *in the other exercises and tell for what each is substituted, and what clauses it connects.*

This exercise may be extended by recourse to the Reader, slate, and blackboard, at the will of the teacher.

REMARK 1. Thus far we have found the NOUN and VERB to be the *principal* or *essential* parts of a sentence. Among the *subordinate* parts, were numbered the ADJECTIVE modifying the noun, the ADVERB modifying the verb, the CONJUNCTION connecting the parts of a sentence, and the PREPOSITION showing the relation of words.

2. These PARTS OF SPEECH, six in number, perform all the grammatical functions of the English sentence. Outside of the sentence, grammatically, stands the INTERJECTION. Within the sentence, the ARTICLE performs the office of an adjective, and the PRONOUNS are substituted for nouns.

What two parts of speech constitute the principal parts of a sentence? What the subordinate? What parts of speech perform all the grammatical functions in a sentence? What parts of speech are used in the relation of others, without developing any new grammatical function? What one is not grammatically connected with a sentence?

TOWER'S

COMMON-SCHOOL GRAMMAR

35. English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly, according to established usage.

Remark. In all cases where *usage* is fully *established* by the best contemporary writers, its decisions are law. When, however, good use is divided, that form should have the preference which is most in conformity with analogy.

36. Grammar includes Orthoëpy, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

37. Orthoëpy treats of the elementary sounds of the language, and their combination in spoken words.

38. Orthography treats of letters, and their combination in written words.

39. Etymology treats of the classification of words, and of the changes made in their forms.

40. Syntax treats of the grammatical connection of words, phrases, and clauses, in sentences.

41. Prosody treats of the quantity of syllables, of accent, and versification.

What is English Grammar? What does grammar include? Of what does Orthoëpy treat? Of what does Orthography treat? Etymology? Syntax? Prosody?

REMARK. It is the province of the spelling-book to teach Orthography; and Orthoëpy is best learned in connection with reading exercises. It seems unnecessary, therefore, to treat of them, in a work of this kind, except so far as they are related to Prosody.

ETYMOLOGY.

42. A word that will form the subject of a sentence, and is the name of an object, is a NOUN; as, Man, tree.

REMARK. A noun may be the name of an object perceptible to the senses; as, Horse, tree, man;—or the name of any object of which we can have an idea or conception; as, Goodness, vice, intemperance.

43. A PRONOUN is a word used as a substitute for a noun; as, John has lost *his* book.

A personal pronoun shows, by its form, the person it represents.

REMARK 1. The pronoun is not a *name*, and yet may be used in any relation of which the noun is susceptible. This is true of the personal pronouns, and, with some few exceptions, of the other classes.

2. Those of the first and second persons, representing the names of the persons speaking, and spoken to, both of whom are present in spoken discourse, are consequently in little danger of being used with a doubtful reference.

3. The chief care in the use of the pronoun should be, that the hearer or reader may find no difficulty in determining the noun for which it stands; and this caution is needful chiefly in the use of the relative pronouns and the *third* person of the personal pronouns.

COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS.

Although all nouns are *names*, yet some are much less definite in their application than others. The noun *man*, for example, is a name by which we distinguish rational animals from the brute creation, but is of no use in distinguishing individuals of the same species.

The noun *city* is a name which may be applied to any one of a *class* of towns, while Boston is the name of a *particular* city.

What is a noun? Of what kind of objects may a noun be the name? What is a pronoun?

The fact that there is a Boston in England, as well as in Massachusetts, or that there are several individuals who have an equal right to the name of John, or John Smith, does not prevent us from regarding these nouns as a distinct class, since they do not receive these names as the result of a process of generalization, but arbitrarily. Whenever it is necessary to distinguish between objects bearing the same individual names, we do it by such limitations as are found necessary. Thus, if we would distinguish between the two places above named, we should write Boston, Mass., and Boston, Eng. So, also, where several have the name John; one may be John Smith, and another John Brown; and, if there happen to be more than one John Smith in a certain locality, they may easily be distinguished as senior, junior, or first, second, third, &c. In this case, the addition may be regarded as a part of the name.

44. Considered with reference to this distinction, nouns are divided into *common* and *proper*.

45. A *common noun* is a name which may be applied to any individual of a class of objects; as, Animal, man, river, mountain.

46. A *proper noun* is a name appropriated to an individual object; as, Daniel Webster, New York, Massachusetts.

Remark 1. It follows, from the definition of a proper noun, that it must be in the singular number.

2. A noun naturally proper sometimes takes a plural termination, and becomes a common noun.

47. A proper noun should always begin with a capital letter; as, James, Albany.

48. Adjectives, derived from proper nouns, and common nouns formed from those adjectives, should begin with capitals; as, English, Englishman.

How are nouns divided? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? How should a proper noun always begin? What adjectives and common nouns should begin with capitals?

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Tell which are* proper nouns, *and which* common, *in the following list, and why. Also write the* proper nouns *on your slate, beginning each with a capital.*

Sled, john, spain, tree, wisdom, charles, man, andes, america teacher, sarah, savannah, mary, anna, chicago, pupil, book, irish, irishmen, alabama.

DIRECTION. *The above list should be extended, if necessary.*

ABSTRACT NOUNS.

There is a class of objects, which we do not conceive of as having an independent existence, but as *qualities* of the objects to which they belong.

These are called *abstract* nouns, because they are formed by taking — *abstracting* — some quality from an object, and regarding that *quality* alone, without reference to the object in which it is found.

Thus, we say of an apple, it is sour; a lemon is sour, &c. Now, when we wish to speak of this quality, indicated by the adjective *sour*, without reference to the apple or lemon, we give it the name of *sourness* or *acidity*.

49. An abstract noun is the name of a quality considered apart from the object in which it is found; as, Goodness, wisdom.

COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

There is a class of nouns which deserve consideration from the fact that, though in the singular form, they may be used in either number, yet not without reference to the sense. They are called *collective* nouns, and are to be regarded as singular or plural according as they are used collectively or individually.

Sometimes we may use them either as singular or plural, and convey *essentially* the same idea; as, The crew was saved; or, The crew were saved. These two sentences express the same proposition, and are equally correct grammatically.

What is an abstract noun?

In the first, the crew is spoken of as a *unit*, constituting the force by which the ship was managed. In the second, reference is had to the individuals constituting that force.

They differ from a common noun in this; that while a common noun is the name of each individual composing that class, a collective noun is the name only of the *collection*, and *not* of the individuals composing it.

Thus, the term *man* includes *all mankind*, and may be applied to *each individual* composing the class. The term *senate*, on the contrary, cannot be applied to each *member*. A member of the senate is a *senator*.

50. A COLLECTIVE noun is a name, which, though it is in the singular form, denotes more than one; as, Senate, school, flock, assembly, company, jury.

REMARK. It should be observed, that these distinctions of *common, proper, abstract,* and *collective,* are not all formed on the same principle of division. Thus, an abstract noun is generally reckoned as a common noun also; while a collective noun may be common; as, Army, — or proper; as, Congress.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil tell the class or classes to which each of the following* nouns *belongs.*

Englishmen, army, uprightness, New York, city, softness, Alabama, knife, freedom, Washington, party, family, snow, greatness, holiness, equality, harshness, cart, meekness, desk, mountain, sweetness, William, school, class.

GENDER.

Every noun is the name of a male being, a female, or of an object which is of neither sex.

On this distinction is founded *gender*.

51. Gender is a distinction of nouns with regard to sex.

What is a collective noun? What is gender?

52. A noun which is the name of a male is of the *masculine* gender; as, *Man*, *boy*, represented by the personal pronouns, *he*, *his*, *him*, or *himself;* as, The ambition of *George* led *him* to persevering efforts, and *he* has now attained *his* object.

53. A noun which is the name of a female is of the *feminine* gender; as, *Woman*, *girl*, represented by the personal pronouns, *she*, *her*, or *herself;* as, *Anna* was pleased with *her* skates, and *she* is now on the ice.

54. A noun which is the name of an object neither male nor female is of the *neuter* gender; as, *Table*, *book*, represented by the personal pronouns, *it*, *its*, or *itself;* as, The *boat* with *its* new oars is now ready for Charles to try *it*.

Remark. In the English language we have nothing, or very little, of what may be called grammatical gender, depending on inflexions. The article and adjective no longer agree with the noun in gender; and, for *grammatical* purposes it is necessary to make this distinction, only so far as is requisite to represent nouns of the third person, singular, by their appropriate personal pronouns; as, Masculine, *he, his, him, himself;* — Feminine, *she, her, herself;* — Neuter, *it, its, itself.*

55. There are a few nouns which are still used, more or less generally, with a masculine or feminine termination to denote sex; as, Actor — actress; instructor — instructress; administrator — administratrix.

56. In some cases the distinction of sex is made by the use of different words.

Thus, son and daughter indicate the same relation, and carry with them, also, the sex of the person named.

When is a noun of the masculine gender? What forms of the personal pronoun are masculine? When is a noun of the feminine gender? What forms of the personal pronoun are feminine? When is a noun of the neuter gender? What forms of the personal pronoun represent an object of the neuter gender? How far do we apply the distinction of gender grammatically? Do nouns ever vary their termination to denote sex? Give an instance. In what other way is difference of sex denoted? Give an example.

57 Other nouns are common to both sexes; as, Cousin, child parent, bird.

Remark 1. The gender of these is sometimes determined by the personal pronoun by which they are represented; as, My cousin has sold *his* horse. Your cousin has left *her* school. Or, by an adjective; as, A male child — a female child.

2. If the noun is in the plural, it may include either or both sexes, without any danger to grammatical accuracy, since the plural form of the personal pronoun is the same in each gender.

EXERCISES.

Direction. *Tell the gender of the following* nouns, *and what* personal pronouns *will represent each.*

Boy, sister, brother, knife, mother, husband, parent, chair, child, bird, son, babe, sled, friend, uncle, dog, hat, scholar, table, neighbor, floor, student, lamp, goodness, cousin, iron, ball, nephew, aunt, cart, witness, girl, guardian, niece, boot, servant.

3. A pronoun of the masculine gender is used to represent one of a company composed of both sexes; as, in a school of boys and girls, we say, "Let each pupil study *his* lesson."

4. The pronoun "it" is used to represent a young child, or any animal whose sex is unknown to us; as, I saw the child as *it* slept quietly in *its* cradle. The hare is hunted for *its* flesh.

5. The pronoun "it" is often used irrespective of gender, especially when introductory; as, It was *he;* it was *she;* it was *you;* it was *John;* it was *Jane;* it was a *horse;* it was the *house;* it is a *table;* it is a *woman.*

6. An animal of superior strength or courage is often represented by a pronoun of the masculine gender; but a delicate or timid animal, by one of the feminine gender; as, The elephant raised *his* trunk. Go to the ant, *thou* sluggard; consider *her* ways, and be wise.

7. When an inanimate object is personified; that is, spoken of as possessing some attribute of a living being, it is represented by a pronoun of the masculine gender, if its peculiar characteristic is *power, strength,* or *sublimity;* but,

---

Give an example of nouns common to both sexes. How is the gender of these sometimes determined? Is it necessary to regard gender in the plural? What pronoun is used when both sexes are employed? How is the pronoun "it" used? How is "it" used when introductory? What distinction is founded on the qualities of animals? What pronoun is used in personification?

if it is *beauty, weakness*, or *delicacy*, by one of the feminine gender, as appears in the following examples; as, Anger, death, despair, fear, revenge, sun, time, winter, war, &c., *masculine;* and earth, cheerfulness, fortune, hope, melancholy, moon, music, nature, peace, pity, ship, spring, wisdom, &c., *feminine;* as, The *sun* was shorn of *his* beams. The *moon* sheds *her* mild radiance down. Grim-visaged *war* hath smoothed *his* wrinkled front. Next *anger* rushed, *his* eyes on fire. Hope, enchanted, smiled, and waved *her* golden hair. First *fear, his* hand, &c. When *music*, heavenly *maid*, was young. *Revenge* impatient rose; *he* threw *his* bloodstained sword in thunder down. *Cheerfulness*, a *nymph* of healthiest hue.

8. Gender, as previously stated and illustrated, is expressed in several ways.

First. By different words; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Bachelor,	Maid. / Spinster.	Father,	Mother.	Master,	Mistress.
Beau,	Belle.	Friar, / Monk,	Nun.	Nephew, / Papa,	Niece. / Mamma.
Boy,	Girl.	Gander,	Goose.	Ram, / Buck,	Ewe.
Brother,	Sister.	Gentleman, / Lord,	Lady.	Schoolmaster,	Schoolmistress.
Buck,	Doe.	Hart,	Roe.	Sir,	Madam.
Bull,	Cow.	Horse,	Mare.	Sloven,	Slut.
Bullock, / Steer	Heifer.	Husband,	Wife.	Son,	Daughter.
Colt,	Filly.	King,	Queen.	Stag,	Hind
Drake,	Duck.	Lad,	Lass.	Uncle,	Aunt.
Earl,	Countess.	Man,	Woman.	Wizard,	Witch.

Second. By difference of termination; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Abbot,	Abbess.	Enchanter,	Enchantress.	Monitor,	Monitress.
Actor,	Actress.	Executor,	Executrix.	Negro,	Negress.
Administrator,	Administratrix.	Founder,	Foundress.	Ogre,	Ogress.
Arbiter,	Arbitress.	God,	Goddess.	Porter,	Portress.
Benefactor,	Benefactress.	Goodman,	Goody.	Prince,	Princess.
Bridegroom,	Bride.	Governor,	Governess.	Protector,	Protectress.
Chanter,	Chantress.	Hero,	Heroine.	Songster,	Songstress
Conductor,	Conductress.	Hunter,	Huntress.	Sultan,	Sultana. / Sultaness.
Doctor,	Doctress. / Doctoress.	Idolater,	Idolatress.		
		Instructor,	Instructress.	Testator	Testatrix.
Don,	Donna.	Inventor,	Inventress.	Tiger,	Tigress.
Duke,	Duchess.	Landlord,	Landlady.	Traitor,	Traitress.
Editor,	Editress.	Landgrave,	Landgravine.	Victor,	Victress.
Elector,	Electress.	Margrave,	Margravine.	Votary,	Votaress.
Emperor,	Empress.	Marquis,	Marchioness.	Widower,	Widow, &c.

What are some of the words that retain their original gender? What is the first mode of distinguishing gender? The second?

A few nouns have the termination "ess" *added* to form the feminine; as, Author, baron, count, deacon, dauphin, giant, heir, host, Jew, lion, mayor, patron, peer, poet, priest, prior, prophet, shepherd, tailor, tutor, viscount.

Third. By prefixing different words, significant of sex; as, He-bear, she-bear; he-goat, she-goat; mankind, womankind; man-servant, maid-servant; male child, female child, &c.

REMARK. Some words used in the feminine have no corresponding word for the masculine; as, Amazon, brunette, dressmaker, dowager, laundress, mantua-maker, milliner, seamstress, shrew, syren, virago, vixen, &c.

NUMBER.

A noun, in its simple form, is the name of a *single* object; but most nouns, by a *change* of *form*, express more than one; as, Boy, boys; child, children. This distinction gives rise to *number*, as a property of nouns.

58. Number is that distinction of nouns by which they express *one* object, or *more* than one; as, Apple, apples.

59. There are two numbers, singular and plural.

60. The singular number expresses *unity;* as, Apple, man, box.

REMARK. Personal pronouns have appropriate forms to represent nouns in the singular; as, I, my, mine, me, myself; thou, thy, thine, thee, thyself; yourself; he, his, him, himself; she, her, herself; it, its, itself.

61. The plural number expresses *plurality;* as, Apples, men, boxes.

REMARK. Personal pronouns have appropriate forms to represent nouns in the plural; as, We, our, us, ourselves; ye, yourselves; they, their, them, themselves. *You*, and *your*, are common to both numbers.

What is the third mode of expressing gender? What are some of the words used in the feminine only? What is number as applied to nouns? What is the singular number? What are the singular forms of the personal pronouns? What is the plural number? What are the plural forms of the personal pronouns? What two forms are alike in each number?

62. Most nouns form their plural by adding "s" or "es" to the singular; as, Girl, girls; bush, bushes.

Remark 1. It may be stated, generally, that the termination "s" is added when it readily coalesces with the preceding letters. If, however, the *singular* end in the *sound* of "s," or a modification of "s," that is, z, sh, ch, j, or x, the plural forms an additional syllable in "es," pronounced "ez"; as, Maze, mazes; sash, sashes; badge, badges; church, churches; box, boxes.

But, if *ch* has the sound of *k*, "s" only is added; as, Monarch, monarchs.

2. Common nouns ending in "y" preceded by a consonant change "y" to "i" and add "es"; as, Fly, flies; lady, ladies.

3. Other nouns ending in "y" have the regular plural; as, Day, days; chimney, chimneys.

4. Some nouns, ending in "f" or "fe" form their plural by changing "f" to "ve," and adding the regular termination; as, Loaf, loaves; wife, wives.

Note. In these nouns, which are generally of Anglo Saxon origin, "f" is commonly preceded by a long vowel.

Exceptions. Nouns ending in *ief* or *oof;* also, safe, fife, strife, dwarf, scarf, gulf, turf, surf, take *s* only in the plural. Wharf has *s* or *ves*.

5. Nouns ending in "ff" have *s* only in the plural; as, Muff, muffs.

Exceptions. *Staff* sometimes has *staves*, though its compounds have the regular plural.

6. Those formations which we call irregular, as, foot, feet; child, children; ox, oxen, &c., were regular plurals of certain declensions in Anglo Saxon, and are now considered irregular, because, with the several declensions, the processes by which those plurals were formed are no longer in force.

How do most nouns form their plural? When is only "s" added? When does the plural form an additional syllable? When a noun ends in the sound of *k*, how is the plural formed? How do nouns ending in "y" form the plural? Nouns in "f" or "fe"? What exceptions? Nouns in "ff"? What exception? What formations are called irregular?

7. Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, generally add *es* in the plural; as, Hero, heroes; wo, woes.

Exceptions. Canto, grotto, junto, portico, solo, halo, octavo, quarto, zero tyro, memento, two; and, with regard to some others, usage is divided.

8. Nouns, ending in *o* preceded by a vowel, generally have *s* only; as, Folio, folios; cameo, cameos.

9. Proper nouns, when made plural and no longer appropriated to an individual, become common nouns, and have *s* only added.

10. *Man* has *men* for its plural; so, too, its compounds. But talisman, Mussulman, which are not compounds, have *s* in the plural.

11. The most common irregular formations are the following; woman, women; child, children; ox, oxen; foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; mouse, mice; penny, pence, but pennies (meaning pieces of coin); brother, brothers (of the same family), brethren (of the same association); die, dies (used to stamp with), dice (used in playing games); genius, geniuses (human beings), genii (imaginary beings); index, indexes (tables of contents), indices (Algebraic signs), &c.

EXERCISES.

Direction. *Write the plurals of the following* nouns *on the slate.*

Chair, table, fox, dish, arch, judge, sire, ark, tetrarch, birch, letter, boy, cry, story, way, knife, strife, life, mischief, root, belief, reproof, safe, gulf, reply, relay, ruff, flagstaff, goose, hoof, grief, coach, tax, horse, beauty, key, valley, cherry, tooth, woman, potato, echo, zero, studio.

12. A letter or figure is made plural by adding an apostrophe and "s;" as, 3 x's, 5 a's, two 9's, the i's, and the t's, mind your p's and q's.

13. Other parts of speech, used as nouns, when they have a plural, form it regularly; as, the *ofs* and the *fors*, the *ups* and the *downs*, the *ins* and the *outs*.

How do nouns in *o* form the plural? What exceptions? Proper nouns? Give some of the irregular formations. How is a letter or figure made plural? How are other parts of speech, when used as nouns, made plural?

14. Some nouns are seldom used except in the singular. These are generally the names of things that may be weighed or measured or names of qualities; as, Sugar, coffee, wine, rum, corn, wheat flour, bread, wisdom, goodness, temperance, brightness. In speaking of different kinds, a plural is sometimes used; as, Sugars, teas, coffees, flours, wines. There is a great difference in *sugars*.

15. Some nouns have only the plural form; as, Annals, archives, ashes, assets, bitters, calends, clothes, dregs, eaves, embers, entrails, filings, goggles, goods, ides, lees, letters (meaning literature), manners (meaning behavior), literati, minutiæ, morals, nippers, nones, nuptials, orgies, pincers, pinchers, pliers, politics, scissors, shambles, shears, snuffers, staggers, thanks, tidings, tongs, tweezers, vespers, victuals, vitals, &c., and the following articles of dress, namely: hose, drawers, pantaloons, trousers.

16. Words composed of a noun and the adjective *full* drop one "l," and have the regular plural; as, Handful, handfuls; mouthful, mouthfuls; pailful, pailfuls; spoonful, spoonfuls.

17. In compounds, generally, the principal word takes the "s" for the plural, though the apostrophe and "s" for the *possessive* case singular are annexed to the end of the compound; as, Court-martial, courts-martial, *possessive* court-marshal's; father-in-law, fathers-in-law, father-in-law's. So, too, cousin-german, knight-errant, son-in-law, daughter-in-law, ship-of-war, &c.

18. Words compounded of two nouns, where one is used really as an adjective, add "s" to the last; as, Night-steed, night-steeds; tide-waiter, water-bailiff, man-trap, mouse-trap, steam-engine, &c.

19. A proper name, with a title prefixed, takes the plural form to itself; as, The Miss Porters; the Mr. Hunters. Here the title and name together as a phrase take the plural at the end of the phrase; as, one Miss Porter, two Miss Porters, &c. One Mr. Hunter, three Mr. Hunters.

What nouns have only the singular form? What nouns have only the plural form? How do compounds of a noun and the adjective *full* form their plural? What is the general rule for compounds? What is it where one noun is used as an adjective? What is the rule for a proper name with a title?

NOTE. Though this is general usage, yet we sometimes find the Misses Porter, or the Misses Porters. The first is equivalent to the "Misses" by the name of "Porter"; and in the latter case "Porters" may be parsed in apposition with "Misses." Even in the latter instances, it would be better to consider the two words as one name or phrase. The "Messrs Hunter" is frequently used.

20. In speaking of copartnerships, and of two or more individuals holding office under the same official name, the *title* is made plural; as, Messrs. Bates and Co., Messrs. Crosby, Nichols and Co., Judges Marshall and Jay, Generals Washington and Knox, Bishops White and Griswold, Lords Napier and Nelson. Here the names are in apposition with the title. But the title and names together constitute a phrase, and should be parsed as such.

21. Some nouns, without change of form, are used in both numbers; as, Deer, sheep, trout, salmon, series, species, amends, news, means, alms, pains, riches, bellows, gallows, odds, wages. Also, the names of sciences; as, Æsthetics, ethics, mathematics, metaphysics, pneumatics. So, too, statistics, hysterics, &c.

22. *Pains*, modified by the adjective much or great, is singular, and is used as synonymous with *effort*. *Billiards*, the name of a game, is singular.

23. *Usage* is inclined to consider those words *plural* that have a plural terminatiou.

24. The words cannon, cattle, head, pulse, sail, shot, weight,— also, bodies of soldiers, as, cavalry, foot, horse, infantry,— though singular in form, are often used in the plural; as, Twenty head of cattle, six cannon, thirty sail of vessels.

25. Some words have two forms for the plural; as, He counted six *dozen;* he counted them by *dozens*.

26. Many words from other languages retain their original plurals.

Is any other form used? How is the plural of copartnerships formed? What nouns have the same form in both numbers? What is said of the word "pains"? Of "billiards"? What is general "usage" as to plurals? What singular forms are often used in the plural without change? What is said of two forms for the plural? What is said of words from other languages?

1. The following change *is* into *es:* Amanuensis, analysis, antithesis, axis, basis, crisis, diæresis, ellipsis, emphasis, hypothesis, metamorphosis, oasis, parenthesis, phasis, thesis ; and ignis fatuus has ignes fatui.

2. The following change *us* into *i:* Alumnus, focus, magus, radius, stimulus. Fungus, besides its original plural in *i*, has the regular English plural ; as, Fungus, fungi or funguses.

3. The following change *um* into *a:* Animalculum, arcanum, datum, desideratum, effluvium, erratum, speculum, stratum. But encomium, gymnasium, medium, memorandum, momentum, and scholium, in addition to their derived plural, have a regular plural in *s ;* as, Medium, media, mediums.

4. The following change *a* into *æ:* lamina, larva, nebula, scoria. Formula has, besides, the regular English plural.

5. The following change *on* into *a :* Automaton, criterion, phenomenon ; besides, the first two have the regular plural.

6. Miasma has miasmata, and dogma has dogmata and dogmas.

7. The following have only the original plural : Chrysalis, chrysalides ; ephemeris, ephemerides ; vortex, vortices ; genus, genera ; Monsieur, Messieurs ; virtuoso, virtuosi.

8. The following have, in addition to the original plural, the regular English plural :

Cherub,	cherubim,	cherubs.	Calx,	calces,	calxes.
Seraph,	seraphim,	seraphs.	Stamen,	stamina,	stamens.
Apex,	apices,	apexes.	Beau,	beaux,	beaus.
Appendix,	appendices,	appendixes.	Bandit,	banditti,	bandits.

27. The pronoun "it," as introductory, is often used indefinitely, irrespective of number ; as, It was *you;* it was *they;* it was *weeks* and *months* before we heard from them ; it was the hard *times* that did it ; it is the *hearts* of the people that must first be gained.

PERSON.

All discourse implies a speaker, one spoken to, and something spoken of ; and on this is based the distinction of *person*, as applied to nouns.

What is the plural of *crisis ?* Of *ignis fatuus ?* What is the plural of *focus ? — radius ? — fungus ?* What is the plural of *datum ? — erratum ?* What words have, besides, the regular plural in *s ?* What is the plural of *lamina ? — formula ?* What is the plural of *phenomenon ? —* of *automaton* and *criterion ?* What is the plural of *miasma ? —* of *dogma ?* What is the plural of chrysalis ? &c. What are the two plural forms of cherub ? — seraph, &c ? How is the pronoun "it" often used, when introductory ?

63. Person marks the distinction of nouns considered as representing the *speaker*, the person *spoken to*, or the object *spoken of*.

64. There are three persons, namely: first, second, and third.

65. 1. The first person represents the person speaking; as, *I*, John, was in the isle that is called Patmos.

Remark. Personal pronouns have forms appropriated to each person. The forms of the first person are, — I, my, mine, me, myself; we, our, us, ourselves.

2. The second person represents the person *spoken to;* as, *Thou William*, still art young. *Charles*, go home. The forms for personal pronouns of the second person are, Thou, thy, thine, thee, thyself, you, your, yourself; you, your, yourselves, ye.

3. The third person represents the person *spoken of;* as, *John* has lost *his book*. The forms for personal pronouns of the third person are, He, his, him, himself; she, her, herself; it, its, itself; they, their, them, themselves.

Remark. The noun undergoes no change of form, in the different persons, and is rarely, if ever, used in the first person. The personal pronoun, however, as seen above, has a special form for each person.

EXERCISES.

Direction. *Tell the person of the* nouns *and* pronouns *in the following sentences.*

The man has arrived. James has gone to Baltimore. I, George Washington, devise and bequeath, &c. Boys, attend to your lessons. The horses ran away. A good boy obeys his parents. Children, obey your parents. John, bring your books to me. The boys are skating. Charles, you may be dismissed.

What does all discourse imply? What is based on this? What is person in nouns? How many persons are applied to nouns? What is the first person? What forms of the personal pronoun represent the first person singular? The first person plural? What does the second person represent? What are the forms of the personal pronouns for the second person in both numbers? What is the third person? What are the forms of the personal pronouns for the third person? Does the noun change in form on account of person?

REMARK. The pronoun "it," used as introductory, is often indefinite, and irrespective of person; as, It is *I*. It was *thou*. It is *you*. It is *he*. John, is it *you*? It was she.

CASE.

Nouns may sustain various relations to the other words in a sentence.

Thus, a noun may stand as the *subject* of a sentence; as, *John* runs. Or it may be the name of an *object* which receives the action expressed by the verb; as, I saw the *man*. There are, also, several other relations in which it may be used.

Case of nouns is founded on this susceptibility of being used in different relations.

66. CASE denotes the relation which a noun or pronoun sustains to the words with which it is grammatically connected; and is sometimes shown by its form.

67. There are three cases, namely: Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

68. A noun used as the *subject* of a sentence, or in *apposition* with the subject, or in the predicate, meaning the same thing as the *subject*, is in the nominative case; as, *Solon*, the *lawgiver*, was a wise *man*.

69. A noun which directly limits another noun, expressing possession or something analogous, is in the *possessive* case; as, This is *William's* hat. These are *boys'* shoes.

70. A noun which is the direct *object* of a verb or participle, or indirectly limits a word with which it is connected by a *preposition*, is in the *objective* case; as,

---

How is the pronoun "it" often used when introductory? Is there more than one relation that nouns can have to other words in a sentence? What are some of these relations? On what is *case* founded? What is case? What are the three cases mentioned? When is a noun in the nominative case? When is a noun in the possessive case? When is a noun in the objective case?

I saw the *boy* eating an *apple*. He went to *New York*.

71. The *nominative* case denotes the relation of the *subject;* as, *John* runs. *She* walks.

72. The *possessive* case denotes the relation of a *possessor;* as, *William's* hat. *His* hat.

73. The *objective* case denotes the relation of an *object;* as, I saw the *boy*. I saw *him*.

Remark 1. The noun has but two forms to indicate case. The simple form being used in the nominative and objective. The possessive singular is the only modification in the form of the noun, to denote its relation.

2. The pronoun generally exhibits the relations of case much more perfectly than the noun; a peculiar form being used for each case. It is easy, commonly, to determine the case of a *noun*, by substituting a pronoun, which, with one or two exceptions, marks the distinction between the nominative and objective.

3. Forms of the pronoun, appropriated to the *nominative* case: I, we, thou, you, yourself, thyself, ye, yourselves, he, she, it, himself, herself, itself, they, themselves, who.

4. Forms of the pronoun, appropriated to the *possessive* case: My, mine, thy, thine, your, his, her, its, our, their, and whose.

5. Forms of the pronoun, appropriated to the *objective* case: Me, myself, us, ourselves, thee, thyself, you, yourself, yourselves, him, himself, her, herself, it, itself, them, themselves, whom.

74. The possessive case, in the singular, is commonly formed by adding an apostrophe and "s" to the simple form; as, William*'s* hat.

What is the nominative case? What is the possessive case? What is the objective case? How many forms has the noun for case? What two cases have the simple form? What case has a different form? How does the pronoun show case? How can we commonly determine the case of a noun? What forms of the pronoun for the nominative case? Possessive? Objective? What forms are alike in the nominative and objective. How is the possessive case singular formed? Spell the example.

75. The possessive plural is commonly formed from the nominative plural by adding an apostrophe; as, The boys' hats.

1. When the plural is not regularly formed, the possessive takes the apostrophe and "s"; as, The children's toys.

2. When the simple form of the noun ends in "ss," the possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe; as, For goodness' sake.

3. Sometimes, in the singular, to avoid an unpleasant succession of hissing sounds, the apostrophe, only, is used; as, Moses' hat. For conscience' sake.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Write the* possessive case *of the following* nouns *in both numbers.*

Boy, girl, woman, ox, duty, bush, tax, lash, church, box, ark, monarch, lady, table, day, baby, fife, pony, birch, wife, grief, knife, hoof, muff, distaff, hero, story.

MODEL.

John found his books.

This is a simple sentence, having "John" for its *subject*, and "found" for its *predicate;* the essential or principal parts of the sentence.

The *subordinate* parts are "books," limiting "found," and showing what "John found," and "his," limiting "books," and showing the owner of them.

"John" is a *name*, therefore a noun; a *particular* name, appropriated to an *individual* of a class, therefore a *proper* noun; name of a *male*, therefore *masculine* gender; denotes only *one*, therefore *singular* number; name of a person *spoken of*, therefore *third* person.

How is the possessive plural formed? Spell the example. How is the possessive of irregular plurals formed? Spell the example. How is the possessive formed of singular nouns in *ss?* Spell the example. In what other case is only the apostrophe used? Spell the examples.

It is the *subject* of the sentence, that of which something is asserted, therefore *nominative* case.

Asking the question, "Who found his books?" and substituting a pronoun for "John," the answer will be, "*He* found his books" Since "he" is the *form* for the *nominative* case, therefore John must be in the nominative, as it is in the same case-relation.

"Found," the predicate of the sentence, one of the essential parts, is used to *assert* something of "John," therefore it is a *verb*.

"His" is a *pronoun*, substituted for "John"; *personal*, as it has a *special form* to indicate the *person;* it has also the special form appropriated to the *masculine* gender, *singular* number, and *third* person, to represent the noun "John" in those particulars. It has the form of the *possessive* case; thus, "His books" = "John's books."

"Books" is a *common* noun, a *name* applied to *any* of a class; destitute of *sex*, therefore of *neither sex*, that is, *neuter gender; plural*, denoting *more* than one; *third* person, name of an object *spoken of*.

When further advanced, the pupil may learn the *cause* of its being in the *objective* case. The *fact* may be learned by asking the question, "Found what?" and answering it by a personal pronoun. The form of the appropriate pronoun will show its *case*, and consequently that of the noun. The answer will be, "Found them." As "them" is the form of the pronoun appropriated to the plural number, third person, and *objective* case, therefore "books" must be in the *objective* case, since it has the same case-relation, though the noun has no special word-form for the objective.

FORM FOR PARSING A NOUN.

Tell the *kind* of noun, and *why;* the *gender, number*, and *person*, and *why;* also, the *case*, and *why*, when the pupil's progress shall enable him to do so.

FORM FOR PARSING A PRONOUN.

Tell the *kind*, and for *what* it is substituted; the *number* and *person;* and, if of the third person, sin

---

What is the form for parsing a noun? What for a pronoun?

gular, tell the *gender*, in which respects the *substitute* must agree with *what* it represents, — and these are generally indicated by a *special* form; and, lastly, the *case*, also commonly known by the form.

NOUN.

KIND. — Proper, common, abstract, collective.

PROPERTIES. — *Gender*, masculine, feminine, neuter. *Number*, singular, plural. *Person*, first, second, third. *Case*, nominative, possessive, objective.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

76. I is the first person; YOU, the second person, Common Style; THOU, the second person, Ancient or Solemn Style; HE, the third person, substituted for a noun of the masculine gender; SHE, the third person, feminine; and IT, third person, neuter.

SINGULAR.

		Common Style.	*Ancient or Solemn Style.*
Nominative,	I,	you,	thou,
Possessive,	my or mine,	your,	thy or thine
Objective,	me.	you.	thee.

PLURAL.

Nominative,	we,	you,	ye,
Possessive,	our,	your,	your,
Objective,	us.	you.	you.

NOTE. *Ye* is sometimes used in the objective, especially by the poets; as, I've scared ye in the forests.

With what must the pronoun agree in number and person? When must the pronoun agree with it in gender? How many kinds of nouns are mentioned? What properties are attributed to nouns? What is the division of gender? — number? — person? — case? What is the first person of the pronouns? — the second? — the third, masculine? — the third, feminine? — the third, neuter?

77. Declension of nouns, and their appropriate personal pronouns.

SINGULAR.

Nom.,	man,	he,	lady,	she,	cargo,	it,
Poss.,	man's,	his,	lady's,	her,	cargo's,	its,
Obj.,	man.	him.	lady.	her.	cargo.	it.

PLURAL.

Nom.,	men	they,	ladies,	they,	cargoes,	they,
Poss.,	men's,	their,	ladies',	their,	cargoes',	their,
Obj.,	men.	them.	ladies.	them.	cargoes,	them.

NOTE. There are no word-forms to denote the several case-relations of the noun. The simple word is the only form for both the nominative and objective relations. The possessive alone has a case-termination.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Tell the* case *of each* noun *and* pronoun *in the following sentences Also, what* personal pronoun *may be substituted for each* noun.

The man is lame. John's ball was found by us. The boy's industry is manifest. Birds fly. Where are the children's books? Father's horse ran away. Soldiers fight. John's pencil was lost, and James found it. I saw him. The ladies' bonnets fitted them. Your book is lost. The heroes' monuments were crumbling.

REMARK. Thus we find that the essential properties of nouns, *gender*, *number*, *person*, and *case*, belong, also, in part to all the personal pronouns, and in whole to those of the third person, singular.

MODEL.

John's dog bit him.

This simple sentence has "dog" for its *subject*, and "bit" for its *predicate;* therefore these are the *essential* parts denoting the *action* and *who* performed it.

How is the personal pronoun of the first person declined? — of the second person, common style? — second person, ancient style? How is "ye" sometimes used? How is "man." with its appropriate pronoun, declined? — lady? — cargo? What are the properties of nouns? What pronouns have the same?

The *subordinate* or accessory parts are "John's," denoting *whose* "dog" did the deed, and "him," denoting the *object* affected by the action, or *whom* the "dog bit."

As the word "John's" limits "dog" to a *particular* dog, of which John is the owner, "John's dog" is the *limited* or *modified* subject; and, as "him" limits the action performed by the dog to a particular *object*, "bit him" is the *limited* or *modified* predicate.

JOHN'S is a *noun*, the name of an object.

Proper, applied to a particular individual.

Masculine Gender, the name of a male being.

Singular Number, denotes one object.

Third Person, an object spoken of.

Possessive Case, denotes the relation of owner, also having an apostrophe and s, the possessive sign; and, if the appropriate pronoun be substituted for the word "John's," it will be "his," which, in the tables, is found in the *possessive* case.

DOG is a *common noun*, any one of a class.

Masculine, denotes a male, though, as a generic term, it often represents either sex.

Singular, expresses unity.

Third Person, spoken of.

Nominative Case, subject of which something is asserted; also, if a personal pronoun be substituted in the place of "dog," it must be "he," which is the special form for the *nominative* case.

BIT is a *verb*, as it is used to *assert* something.

HIM is a *pronoun*, a word substituted for a noun, here put for the noun "John." *Personal*, showing by its form the person of the noun it represents.

Masculine, the appropriate form to represent a noun of that gender.

Singular, the form appropriated to represent a noun of that number.

Third Person, the form used to represent a noun that is the name of an object spoken of.

Objective Case, the special form appropriated to that case in the tables; as, *Nominative* he, *possessive* his, *objective* him.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil parse the following* nouns *and* pronouns *according to the foregoing* model, *giving* reasons *as far as he can.*

The boy saw me. The dog barks. Horses run. William studied his lessons. He recited them well. Mary's mother has returned. I saw her. You may go. Boys play. Children should play. Jane was invited by me. They hurt him. She will come. The men called us. We met them. The book was sent to us. The bird could not fly; its wings had been injured.

VERB.

78. A verb is a word which may be used to assert or affirm; as, John *runs.* William *is writing.* Henry *was loved.*

REMARK. The verb really asserts only when it is used in the indicative or potential mood, and the sentence is in the declarative form. A verb in the imperative or infinitive mood, or in an interrogative sentence, does not assert, but is capable of doing it when put in the indicative or potential mood and declarative form.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.

79. Verbs considered with reference to the formation of their past tense, and their perfect participle, are REGULAR OR IRREGULAR.

80. A *regular* verb forms its past tense, and perfect participle, by adding "ed" to the simple form of the present, or "d" only, when the verb ends in "e"; as, Act, acted, acted; love, loved, loved.

REMARK 1. Verbs which change "y" to "i," and those which double the final consonant, and add "ed," are considered regular; as, Study, studied, studied; prefer, preferred, preferred.

What is a verb? Do all verbs form their principal parts alike? What is a regular verb? What other changes are called regular?

2 Nearly all the irregular verbs are of Anglo-Saxon origin, and they formed their past tense, and perfect participle, according to regular processes in that language. The only process now in force is the regular formation.

3. Every verb, introduced from another language and anglicized, since the English has been regarded as a distinct language, has taken the regular formation. Many verbs, also, which were formerly irregular, are now regular; as, Reach, *raught*, now reached; bedeck, *bedight*, now bedecked.

81. An *irregular* verb does not form its past tense and perfect participle by the addition of "ed" to the simple form of the verb, or "d" when the verb ends in "e"; as, Go, went, gone; hear, heard, heard; give, gave, given.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

82. Verbs are also divided, according to their power of taking a direct object, into *Transitive* and *Intransitive.*

83. A verb which admits a direct object is *transitive;* as, I *saw* the *man.*

84. A verb which does not admit a direct object is *intransitive;* as, John *went* to Boston.

Remark 1 The word "transitive" means *passing over*, and a *transitive* verb is so called, because the action, expressed by the verb, seems to pass over from the subject to an object; while, in the use of an *intransitive* verb, the action or being is spoken of only in its relation to the subject.

2. Many verbs are either transitive or intransitive, according to

---

What is an irregular verb? How are verbs divided in reference to taking a direct object? What is a transitive verb?—an intransitive? What does the word "transitive" mean? Why is a transitive verb so called? How does the intransitive verb differ from it? Give an example of a verb that may be used as transitive or intransitive, according to the sense.

the manner in which they are used; as, I *returned* from the country yesterday. To-morrow I will *return* your *book*.

3. Verbs commonly transitive, when used to express an action in relation merely to the subject, are regarded as intransitive.

Thus, "The boy studies well." Here, studies is intransitive, because it is the subjective action only to which attention is directed.

NOTE 1. A *transitive* verb requires the pronoun directly modifying it to be in the *objective form*; as, I struck *him*. Therefore, we say that a *noun*, taking the place of "him" as the *direct* object of "struck," is in the same *case-relation*; we call it the *objective* case, although there is no change in termination, no *special form* to show it; as, I struck *John*. I struck the *man*. He eats *them*. He eats *apples*.

2. An *intransitive* verb will not allow an *objective form* of a pronoun to be substituted for a noun, after it, without the expression of the connecting preposition, showing the modifying relation to be that of the *indirect* object; as, John has gone *home*.

3. The noun in English is varied in form only in the possessive case, — the nominative and objective forms being the same. The pronoun has commonly three forms. It is easy, therefore, to decide the case of nouns, by substituting pronouns for them.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *In the following sentences tell what the* verb *asserts*; *whether* transitive *or* intransitive, *and why*.

The idol of to-day pushes aside the hero of yesterday. Our fathers find their graves in our short memories. History sometimes fades into fable. The statue falls from its pedestal. A man may lend money, but cannot borrow wisdom. The light of heaven smiles on their path. I stand upon my native hills once more. I saw him on the battle eve. Is Henry at home? Peter went to New Orleans. The man came from France. Charles has found his knife, but has lost his ball.

When are transitive verbs regarded as intransitive? What form of a personal pronoun is used to directly modify a transitive verb? Will an intransitive verb admit the same form after it? How can we ascertain the grammatical relation of nouns?

MODEL.

Children should obey their parents.

The two principal parts of this sentence are the word "children," of which the assertion is made, and the phrase "should obey" which contains the assertion.

The idea set forth by the two *essential* parts of the sentence is *general*. Now, by taking a direct *object* for the action of the verb, the obedience is restricted to one class of persons, "parents" only. By introducing the word "their," representing "children," the class of persons to be obeyed is limited to the "children's parents." "Parents" and "their" are the *subordinate* or modifying parts of the sentence; "their" modifying "parents," and "parents" modifying "should obey."

Thus "children" is the grammatical subject unmodified; that is, as far as the subject "children" is concerned, it is *general*, not restricted to *good*, *bad*, *wise*, *ignorant*, *great*, *small*, *black*, *white*, or any other kind or class of "children."

"Should obey" is the grammatical predicate, modified by the subordinate expression "their parents"; and "should obey their parents" is the *modified* predicate.

CHILDREN is a *common noun*, a name applicable to any of the class.

Either *masculine* or *feminine*, as it is applicable to either sex, and, as here, may embrace some of each.

Plural, more than one.

Third Person, spoken of.

Nominative Case, the *subject* of the assertion. The answer to the question, "*Who* should obey?" is "children"; or, by substituting a personal pronoun of the *third*, *plural*, the appropriate form will be "they," which is the special form for the *nominative* case.

SHOULD OBEY is here *used* to *assert*, and is, therefore, a *verb*. The principal parts of the verb are *obey*, *obeyed*, *obeyed;* formed by adding *ed*, and therefore *regular*.

It requires a direct *object* to complete the sense; as, "Should obey what or *whom?*" Answer, "Should obey parents"; therefore it is a *transitive* verb.

THEIR is a personal pronoun, plural, and third person, to represent the noun "children" in those two respects. The plural form is the same irrespective of *gender;* and we may disregard *gender* except in parsing the third person, singular, of the personal pronouns. *Possessive* case, as shown by its *special* form.

PARENTS is a *common noun*, either masculine or feminine, here including some of each; *plural*, *third*, more than one, and spoken of; *objective* case, as the direct *object* limiting the action expressed by the *transitive* verb "should obey." If we substitute for "parents" the appropriate pronoun, it will be "them," the special form for the *objective* case; therefore, we know the case-relation to be *objective*, though the noun has no special form for it.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse, according to the foregoing* model, *the* nouns *and* pronouns *in the following sentences; also, the* verbs, *so far as to tell whether they are* transitive *or* intransitive, *and why? The regular and irregular formations of the* verb, *so far as known, may be given.*

The man pleased his employer. Father has arrived. I saw him. The boys walked. Vice degrades us. We should love our neighbors. James struck Charles. The waves swept on. Has John gone? Virtue ennobles us. The sun shines. Duty exists. Hope survives. Heaven rewarded his industry. Success has crowned our efforts.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VERBS.

The *perfect* participle of a transitive verb, when compounded with the verb "be," in any of its moods and tenses, forms what is called a *passive verb;* the distinguishing characteristic of which is, that the *subject* of the sentence whose predicate is passive is the *object* of the action expressed by the verb; as, *John* was struck by William The subject is not the agent or doer of the action, but the receiver or object of the action.

How is a passive verb formed? What is its distinguishing characteristic?

85. A *passive* verb is a compound verb, formed by prefixing a form of the verb "be" to the perfect participle of a transitive verb; as, The man *was loved.*

REMARK. This affords a convenient form for a sentence, when we would assert what is done, but are unable, or do not wish to name the author of the action; as, The mischief *was done.*

86. A verb is called active when its grammatical subject is the name of the agent or doer of the action expressed; as, "John loved his parents;" "William was injuring himself."

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

When the *imperfect* participle of a verb is compounded with the verb "be" in any of its moods and tenses, the compound verb is said to be in the *progressive form.*

The verb so formed is nearly equivalent to the simple active form in the same mood and tense, but generally has more distinct reference to time; as, *He sings, he is singing.* Here, the first sentence is used to express his ability to sing, or a habit of singing; while the latter is used more commonly to assert that he is *now* engaged in the act. This distinction, however, does not always hold good.

87. A verb formed by prefixing a form of the verb "be" to the imperfect participle of a simple verb, is said to be in the *progressive* form; as, John *is running.*

1. An intransitive verb, when compounded with a preposition, may be used in the PASSIVE form; as, We were *looked upon* by them as traitors, — that is, we were regarded by them as traitors. In the *active* voice, it would be written, They looked upon us as traitors.

2. Some intransitive verbs are used either in the active or passive form, without a corresponding change in their *subjects*, as *acting* or *acted on;* as, John has come, or John is come.

What, then, is a passive verb? When is a verb called active? When is a verb in the progressive form? When may an intransitive verb be used in the passive form? Example? Example of one used without change of subject?

3. When an intransitive verb is used *transitively*, it admits the passive voice; as, They *ran* a coach to the steamboat A coach *was run* to the steamboat by them.

EXERCISES ON VERB-FORMS.

DIRECTION. *Tell which of the following* verbs *is in the* active, *which in the* passive *and which in the* progressive *form. Also, whether* transitive *or* intransitive. *This exercise can be continued in the Reader.*

It is accomplished. The deed is done. I ask no mortal wreath. Hammocks had already been lashed up, and the gun-deck was flooded in its whole extent. I ascended to the upper deck. The rain came down in torrents, but I did not feel it. The mind must be concentrated. The last beams of day were streaming through the windows. Time is ever silently turning over his pages. The magazine will be filled. We have been complaining of the cold. When they spoke, America listened; and when they were thinking, America stood still. The scholars were delighted with the study. The parents corrected their children. The partiality of friends injured the boy. The partiality of friends was injuring the boy. The boy was injured by the partiality of friends.

MOOD.

It has already been stated that the verb does not always assert, though that is often regarded as its peculiar function. It is true that every verb *may* be used to assert, and this has been given as its definition.

By certain modifications, called conjugations, it is made to express *manner* of action or being; as affirmation, command, &c.

The different ways in which the verb is used, give rise to *mood*; as, *John went* declares an *act* — simple declaration. *If John went* expresses a *condition*. *John can go* declares *power*, or *ability*. *John, go*

What intransitive verbs admit the passive voice? Example? What is the peculiar function of a verb? Does it always assert? What is the definition of a verb? What is the conjugation of a verb? What gives rise to mood? What are the ways?

expresses a *command*. In the sentence, *John intends to go*, "to go" is used not *to assert*, but to limit an assertion.

In these several *ways*, *manners* or *moods*, a verb may be used to assert an *act* or *power*, to express a *condition* or *command*, or to *limit* an assertion.

NOTE. It will be perceived that "John went," and "*if* John went," have the same modal form, and that the *condition* does not depend on the *form* of the verb; but is expressed solely by the conjunction "if," which is the only difference between the two expressions. The Subjunctive, as a separate mood, requiring a special form, is going out of use; it now retains no special modal form, except in the verb "be."

88. Mood is the MANNER in which the action or being is represented; as, John, go. John went.

89. The INDICATIVE mood is that form of the verb which is used to express simple existence or action; as, John went.

90. The POTENTIAL mood is that form of the verb which is used to express *possibility*, *liberty*, *power*, *will*, *obligation*, or *necessity*, by the use of one of these words, *may*, *can*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, *must*; as, John *can go*.

REMARKS. *May* is used to express liberty or possibility; *can*, *could*, *might* to express power or ability; *must*, to express necessity; *should*, to express obligation; *would*, to express will.

91. The IMPERATIVE mood is that form of the verb, which is used to express a command; as, John, *go*.

REMARK. This form or mood is also used in supplication, entreaty, &c.; as John, *do go*. *Give* us this day our daily bread.

For what purposes may a verb be used in these several ways? What is the difference in the modal forms, "John went," and "*if* John went"? What is mood? What is the Indicative mood? For what is the Potential mood used? What words are used as auxiliaries in this mood? What does *may* express? What do *can*, *could*, and *might*, express? What does *must* express?—*should*?—*would*? What does the Imperative generally express? For what other purposes is it used? What auxiliary is used for emphasis or entreaty?

92. The SUBJUNCTIVE mood is that form of the verb, which is used to express a condition, or supposition; as, Were the story true, his course might be justified.

REMARK 1. This mood has no special *modal form* except in the anomalous verb "be," used either as principal, or as auxiliary to make the progressive and passive forms. Two forms are given as peculiar to this mood, *be* and *were*. But *be* is clearly an Indicative or Potential form abbreviated by ellipsis; and the Past *were* is just like the Indicative Past, except in the first and third persons singular, and in the Ancient form; as,

Indicative Past — I was, *thou wast*, he was.
Subjunctive Past — I were, *thou wert*, he were.

So that the Subjunctive has really but *one peculiar* form in Common Style, and one in Ancient Style. Even these are seldom used by writers of the present day.

2. A *dependent*, *subordinate*, or *subjoined* clause, connected with some other part of the sentence by a *clausal* conjunction, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *lest*, *except*, *provided*, or *provided that*, has usually been considered as having its predicate in the Subjunctive mood. Thus, the *conjunction* and *predicate* together have stood as the *modal form* of the Subjunctive. So, that any *form* of the Indicative or Potential, used as the predicate of a clause made dependent and connected with another by one of the foregoing conjunctions, would be in the Subjunctive mood.

NOTE. If a verb is to be parsed as in the Subjunctive, or *dependent* mood, when it is predicate of a clause connected with another by either of the foregoing conjunctions, the paradigm of the Indicative and Potential may be used, to save repetition. It is rather with reference to the writings of the past than to present usage, that the Subjunctive retains a place in grammar

---

For what is the Subjunctive used? Is there a peculiar form for this mood? In what verb only is its modal form found? In making what forms is the verb "be" used as an auxiliary? In what forms, then, is this modal peculiarity found? In what two persons alone is "were" found? Where is "wert" found? Are these forms becoming obsolete? In what clauses is the predicate considered in the Subjunctive? What connectives are used in such cases? What have stood as the modal form of the Subjunctive?

93. The INFINITIVE mood is that form of the verb which is used to express being or action without limitation of number and person; as, John intends *to go.*

REMARK 1. The participle is a form of the verb, denoting the state of being or action, as, *continuing* or unfinished, and as *complete* and finished, without reference to tense or time. Thus, the *imperfect* (continuing or unfinished) participle may be used with every form of the verb "be," *present*, *past*, and *future*, indifferently. So, too, the *perfect* (finished) participle may be used with the same.

2. There are three participles, the Imperfect, Perfect, and Compound Perfect.

3. The IMPERFECT participle is formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of a verb; as, Love, loving; run, running; die, dying.

4. The PERFECT participle of regular verbs has the same form as the past tense. In irregular verbs the form may be found in the tables; as, *Loved, run, died.*

5. The COMPOUND PERFECT participle is formed by prefixing *having* to the Perfect participle; as, *Having* loved, *having* run, *having* died.

EXERCISES ON MOODS.

DIRECTION. *Tell the* mood *of each* verb *in the following sentences, and the reason for it. The teacher can extend this exercise by requiring the pupil to do the same with sentences in his reading-book.*

The boy loved to play, but he could not study. John intends to walk home. James might learn, and he ought to study. We have completed our tasks. Children should obey their parents. I will ask him. I shall attend school because my parents wish it. Make good use of time. Go to the ant, thou sluggard, consider her ways, and be wise. Remember that all mankind are

---

What is the Infinitive mood? What does the participle denote? How formed?

brethren. John went to school to learn. Some persons seem to be unable to resist temptation. Doubtless he can do it; will he do it, is the question. James had finished his task, when father returned. John may have studied his lesson, but it was recited poorly. If he were all; — remember haughty Henry. William may go, but John must stay at home.

TENSE.

The form of the verb usually indicates *time*. Thus, the sentence "*I walk*" predicates the act of walking at the *present time*. "*I walked*" predicates the same act in *past time*. "*I shall walk*" predicates the same act in *future time*.

The form of the verb may also denote either *incomplete* or *finished* action. Thus, "*I am walking*" predicates an act as unfinished or imperfect. "*I have been walking*" predicates the same act as completed or perfect. It is on these two facts of grammar that *tense* is founded.

Remark 1. The Present tense predicates *unfinished* action at the *present* time. It might properly be called the *imperfect present*.

2. The Past tense predicates *unfinished* action at a *past* time. It might be called the *imperfect past*.

3. The Future tense predicates *unfinished* action in *future* time. It might be called the *imperfect future*.

4. The Perfect tense predicates action *finished* at the *present* time. It might be called the *present perfect*.

5. The Pluperfect tense predicates action *finished* at a certain *past* time. It might be called the *past perfect*.

6. The Future Perfect predicates *finished* action at a *future* time, and is rightly named.

Note 1. This is, undoubtedly, the true *theory* of the tenses, as may be seen by applying it to the Indicative mood, in simple sentences.

What indicates time? What else does the form of the verb denote? On what is tense founded? What does the present tense predicate? — the past? — the future? — the perfect? What does the pluperfect tense predicate, and what might it be called?

2. It does not apply to the same extent to the other moods, nor always to the Indicative, when used in compound and complex sentences.

3. With this explanation we shall give the usual nomenclature, slightly varied, using it with the foregoing limitations.

7. The three tenses denoting *unfinished* action are the Present, Past, and Future. The three referring to *finished* action are the Perfect, the Past Perfect, and the Future Perfect.

8. The Infinitive mood has two forms,— the *simple* or present, and the *compound* or perfect; as, *To love, to have loved.* The *old names* are retained, with this explanation, that they do not indicate time-forms, but merely *state* of being and action, as finished or unfinished.

94. Tense marks distinctions of time, and completeness or incompleteness of action.

95. The PRESENT tense denotes *present* time and *incomplete* action; as, I *see.* I *am writing.* I *am heard.*

96. The PAST tense denotes *past* time and *incomplete* action; as, You *saw.* He *was writing.* The noise *was heard.*

97. The FUTURE tense denotes *future* time, without reference to the completeness of the action; as, They *will see.* You *will be writing.* The skates *shall be mended.*

98. The PERFECT tense denotes that the action *is finished* at the *present* time; as, John *has written.* He *has been writing.* We *have been informed* of the fact.

99. The PAST PERFECT tense denotes that the action *was finished* before some *past* time; as, I *had written.* He *had been writing.* They *had been pardoned.*

What does the future perfect predicate? What are the three tenses denoting unfinished action, called? — the three denoting finished action? What is tense? What does the present tense denote? Give the examples. What does the past tense denote? — the future? — the perfect? — the past perfect?

100. The FUTURE PERFECT tense denotes that the action *will be finished* at some *future* time; as, I *shall have dined* before you get back. He *will have been writing* several hours when you get there.

101. The AUXILIARIES, or helps used in conjugating verbs, are shall, should; will, would; may, might; can, could, and must; also, do, did; have, had. The verb *be*, in all its parts, is used in making the Progressive and Passive forms of a verb.

REMARK. Do, did, done; have, had, had; will, willed, willed, and be, was, been, are also used alone, being entire verbs.

EXERCISES ON TENSES.

DIRECTION. *Tell the* tense *of each* verb *in the following sentences; also the* mood *and* form. *This exercise may be extended by recurring to the Reader.*

The boy loves his book, because he can read it. The teacher desires to see your slate. The sound of footsteps had entirely ceased. The sunbeams were faintly streaming through the window. I sat down to rest myself. Each hour has rolled us onward toward the grave. These records will be obliterated, and the monument will cease to be a memorial. He was roused by the sound. Such things had been, and had perished. I have not yet heard from him. The Puritans had heard of America before they went to Holland. When you call for me, I will go with you. How many will have passed away before to-morrow's sun shall set! Once I loved torn ocean's roar. Deep sleep had fallen on the destined victim. By diligent study, the boy might have learned his lesson in season. The horse would run. The battle had been fought. The lion can be tamed. The enemy

---

The future perfect? How are auxiliaries used? What are they? How is the verb "be" used as an auxiliary? Give the principal parts of *do*, *have*, *will*, and *be*, not used as auxiliaries.

might have been conquered. Did he ask the question? John may have been late.

EXERCISES IN CONSTRUCTION.

DIRECTION 1. Taking "boys" as a subject, construct sentences, asserting *necessity*, in as many ways as possible, using for predicates the following verbs, in the active and progressive form, and in the passive, if they are transitive: *play*, *buy*, and *go*.

2. Assert *liberty* or *permission*, with the verbs *receive*, *give*, and *walk*, as above.

3. Assert *power* or *ability* with the verbs *choose*, *obey*, and *write*.

4. Assert *obligation* with *read*, *learn*, *find*.

5. Assert *possibility* with *recite*, *remain*, *sell*.

6. Assert *will* with *go*, *defend*, *break*.

7. Use the following verbs to *limit* the assertion made by another verb: *go*, *run*, *learn*, *read*.

8. Use the following verbs in command or entreaty addressed to "boys": *study*, *obey*, *give*, *run*.

9. Use the following verbs in simple declaration, with "boys" for the subject: *ask*, *recite*, *come*, *finish*.

DIRECTION. *The above exercise should be continued on the slate or otherwise, at the discretion of the teacher.*

NUMBER AND PERSON.

The form of the verb is sometimes changed to indicate the number and person of the subject. This, in many languages, is effected by terminational inflections, and is of much more extensive application than in English.

NOTE. In the Latin, for example, the number and person of the subject are indicated by the termination of the verb.

In English, if we except the anomalous verb "be," there are, according to present use, but two instances of such a change, simp-

---

Is the verb ever varied to show the person and number of its subject? How is it generally effected?

to indicate number and person. These two alone need be mastered by the pupil.

A subject of the singular number and third person, requires a change in the form of the verb, when it is in the present or perfect tense of the Indicative mood. The termination "st," or "est," though used only in the second person, singular, is now exclusively appropriated to the *Ancient* or *Solemn* Style.

102. In *Common* Style a verb is varied on account of the number and person of its subject only in the present and perfect tenses of the Indicative mood.

REMARK. Even in these two tenses there is no variation, except when the subject is of the third person, singular.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present — love, *Past* — loved, *Perfect Participle* — loved.

COMMON STYLE.

REMARK. The following are the modal and tense forms for subjects of any number and person, with the two variations in the *Present* and *Perfect* for the *third* person, *singular*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present — with a subject of the *third person singular* — loves, or does love. OLD FORM — *loveth* or *doth love*.
with *any other* subject — love *or* do love.

Past — with *any* subject — loved *or* did love.

Future — with *any* subject — shall *or* will love.

Perfect — with a subject, *third person*, *singular* — has loved. OLD FORM — *hath loved*.
with *any other* subject, . . have loved.

Past Perfect — with *any* subject, . . had loved.

Future Perfect — with *any* subject — shall or will have loved.

How many variations in English? When are they made? Where do we find the termination "st" or "est"? In Common Style in what tenses is a verb varied? For what person and number of the subject is the verb varied? In what mood only? In what tenses of that mood? What are the forms in the present, when the subject is third, singular? The forms for any other subject? Forms in the perfect, with a subject third, singular? For any other subject? What is the only form of the past? — of the future? — of the past perfect? — of the future perfect?

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — may, can, *or* must love.
Past — might, could, would, *or* should love.
Perfect — may, can, *or* must have loved.
Past Perfect — might, could, would, *or* should have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Love, *or* do love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, or simple form, to love.
Perfect, or compound form, to have loved

PARTICIPLES.

(*Continuing or unfinished form*) *Imperfect*, loving,
(*Finished indefinitely*) *Simple Perfect*, loved,
(*Finished definitely*) *Compound Perfect*, having loved.

ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE.

103. Used only with a subject of the second person, singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present — lovest, *or* dost love. *Past* — lovedst, *or* didst love.
Future — shalt *or* wilt love. *Perfect* — hast loved.
Past Perfect — hadst loved. *Future Perfect* — wilt have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — mayst, *or* canst love.
Past — mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst love.
Perfect — mayst, *or* canst have loved
Past Perfect — mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have loved

---

Are verbs in the Potential, in Common Style, ever varied on account of the person and number of the subject? What is the only form for the present tense? — for the past? — the perfect? — the past perfect? What are the only forms of the Imperative mood? What is the simple form of the Infinitive? — the compound form? How many forms has the Infinitive? How many participles. What is the continuing form called? What is the form? What is the finished indefinite? — the finished definite called? — the form? With what subject only is the Ancient or Solemn Style used? What is the form for the present tense, Indicative? — for the past? — future? — perfect? — past perfect? — future perfect? What is the form for the Potential, present, Ancient Style? — of the past? — the perfect? — past perfect?

FORMATION OF THE TENSES IN THE ACTIVE FORM.

104. The compound tenses of the Indicative, and all the tenses of the Potential mood, are formed by prefixing the following auxiliaries severally to the simple verb or its perfect participle.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present — simple form of the verb.
Past — adding *d* or *ed*
Future — prefixing *shall* or *will* } to the simple form.
Perfect — prefixing *have* or *has*
Past Perfect — prefixing *had*
Future Perfect — " *shall* or *will have* } to the perfect participle.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — may, can, *or* must
Past — might, could, would, *or* should } to the simple form.
Perfect — may, can, *or* must, have
Past Perfect — might, could, would, *or* should, have } to the perfect participle.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present — prefixing *to* to the simple form.
Perfect — " *to have* to the perfect participle.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The simple form of the verb, or the auxiliary *do* prefixed to it.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect — adding *ing*
Simple Perfect — *d* or *ed* } to the simple form.
Compound Perfect — prefixing *having* to the perfect participle.

How are the compound tenses of the Indicative and all the tenses of the Potential formed? What is the present, Indicative? How is the past tense formed? — the future? — the perfect? — the past perfect — the future perfect? How is the present of the Potential formed? — the past? — the perfect? — the past perfect? How is the present Infinitive formed? — the perfect? How is the Imperative mood formed? How is the imperfect participle formed? — the simple perfect? — the compound perfect? What tenses of the Indicative are formed by prefixing auxiliaries to the simple verb? What to the perfect participle? What to each in the Potential mood?

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil, from the principal parts of the following* verbs, *form the* moods *and* tenses *in the way above given, and write out the active forms with the variations required on account of the* number *and* person *of a subject in the* Common *Style; also in the* Formal *or* Solemn *Style.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
wade,	waded,	wading,	waded.
form,	formed,	forming,	formed.
differ,	differed,	differing,	differed.
omit,	omitted,	omitting,	omitted.
cry,	cried,	crying,	cried.
go,	went,	going,	gone.
rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
command,	commanded,	commanding,	commanded.
obey,	obeyed,	obeying,	obeyed.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "BE."

Present — am or be, *Past* — was, *Perfect Participle* — been.

COMMON STYLE.

REMARK. The intransitive and often auxiliary verb "be" is varied on account of the person and number of its subject in only the *Present, Past,* and *Perfect* of the Indicative mood.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present —	with a subject *of the first person, singular,* .	am.
	with a subject, *third person singular,* . .	is.
	with *any other* subject, ...	are.
Past —	with a subject, *first* or *third person, singular,*	was.
	with *any other* subject, . . .	were.
Future —	with *any* subject, . . .	shall or will be.

What are the principal parts of the verb "be"? In which tenses is it varied on account of its subject? In the present, Indicative, what is the form for the first person, singular? for a subject of the third person? — for any other subject? In the past tense, what is the form for a subject, first or third person, singular? — for any other subject? — for the future?

Perfect — { with a subject, *third, singular*, has or *hath* been.
with *any other* subject, . . have been.
Past Perfect — with *any* subject, . . . had been,
Future Perfect — with *any* subject, . shall *or* will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — may, can, *or* must be.
Past — might, could, would, *or* should be.
Perfect — may, can, *or* must have been.
Past Perfect — might, could, would, *or* should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present — be. *Past* — were.

IMPERATIVE.

Be, *or* do be.

INFINITIVE.

Present, or simple form, to be. *Perfect*, or compound form, to have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect — being. *Perfect* — been. *Compound Perfect* — having been.

ANCIENT OR SOLEMN STYLE.

105. The several forms of the verb in this style are used only with a subject of the second person, singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present — art. *Past* — wast. *Future* — shalt *or* wilt be.
Perfect — hast been. *Past Perfect* — hadst been.
Future Perfect — wilt have been.

In the perfect tense, what is the form for the third person, singular? — for any other subject? What is the only form of the future? — of the past perfect? — of the future perfect? What are the forms of the present Potential? — of the past? — of the perfect? — of the past perfect? What forms of the Subjunctive? — of the Imperative? What is the form of the present Infinitive? — of the perfect? What is the imperfect participle? — the perfect? — the compound perfect? With what subject are the forms of the solemn style used? What is the form for each tense in the Indicative mood?

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — mayst, *or* canst be.
Past — mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst be.
Perfect — mayst, *or* canst have been.
Past Perfect — mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Past — wert.

106. A passive verb is formed by annexing the perfect participle of a transitive verb to the verb "be" in any of its moods and tenses; as, *Am loved.*

107. The PROGRESSIVE form is made by annexing the imperfect participle of a verb to the verb "be" in any of its moods and tenses; as, *Am writing.*

108. Synopsis of the Passive form of the irregular verb HIDE.

Present — hide. *Past* — hid. *Perfect Participle* — hidden.

COMMON STYLE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. — am, is, are.	*Perf.* — has *or* hath, have been	hidden.
Past — was, were.	*Past Perfect* — had been	
Fu — shall *or* will be.	*Fu. Per.* — shall *or* will have been	

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — may, can, *or* must be	hidden.
Past — might, could, would, *or* should be	
Perfect — may, can, *or* must have been	
Past Per. — might, could, would, *or* should have been	

What is the form for each tense in the Potential mood? What is the only form that is varied in the Subjunctive? How is a passive verb formed? How is the progressive form made? What is the form of each tense in the passive Indicative? What for the Potential? What for each tense in the Subjunctive mood?

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present — be
Past — were } hidden.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be hidden.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present — to be
Perfect — to have been } hidden.

PARTICIPLES.

Present — being hidden. *Perfect* — hidden. *Compound Perfect* — having been hidden.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil write out in full a synopsis of the following* verbs, *if* transitive, *in the* progressive *and* passive *forms; but, if* intransitive, *in the* progressive *form only.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
make,	made,	making,	made.
form,	formed,	forming,	formed.
walk,	walked,	walking,	walked.
deceive,	deceived,	deceiving,	deceived.
limit,	limited,	limiting,	limited.
remit,	remitted,	remitting,	remitted.
sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
run,	ran,	running,	run.
fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
swim,	swam,	swimming,	swum.
bark,	barked,	barking,	barked.
know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
try,	tried,	trying,	tried.

109. The CONJUGATION of a verb is a connected view of all its forms, as varied by mood, tense, person, and number.

What is the form of the Imperative mood? What is the form for the Infinitive? What forms for the participles? What is the conjugation of a verb?

110. Conjugation of the irregular and intransitive verb BE.

NOTE. In the Common Style, this verb is varied, on account of the person or number of its subject, only in the present, past, and perfect tenses of the Indicative mood.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present — am *or* be. *Past* — was. *Perfect Participle* — been.

NOTE. THOU and YE are the pronouns chiefly used in the Ancient or Solemn Style, but the verb is varied only in the singular. The old form is put in *Italics*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense, singular — first person I am; second, you are or *thou art;* third, he is. *Plural* — first person we are; second, you or *ye* are; third, they are.

Past — I was, you were or *thou wast*, he was; we were, you or *ye* were, they were.

Future — I, you, he; we, you or *ye*, they shall or will be. *Thou shalt* or *wilt be*.

Perfect — I have been, you have been or *thou hast been*, he hath or has been; we, you or *ye*, they have been.

Past Perfect — I, you, he; we, you or *ye*, they had been. *Thou hadst been*.

Future Perfect — I shall, you will or *thou wilt*, he will; we shall, you or *ye* will, they will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

NOTE. A verb in this mood is not varied on account of the person or number of its subject, except in the Ancient Style.

Present — I, you, he; we, you or *ye*, they may, can, or must be. *Thou mayst* or *canst be*.

In what tenses is "be" varied on account of the person and number of its subject? What are the principal parts? What pronouns are used as subjects in the old style? With which one alone is the verb varied? What is the present Indicative? What is the old form? What form for the first person, singular? What form for the third, singular? What for all others? What form for the first and third, singular, of the past tense? What for the rest? What for old style? What is the only form for the future in the common style? What for the ancient style? What is the form of the third, singular, in the perfect? What form for the rest? What for old style? What is the form for the past perfect? What in old style? What is the form of the first person of both numbers in the future perfect? What for the rest? What in old style? What is the form for the Potential present in common style? — in old style?

Past — I, you, he; we, you or *ye*, they might, could, would, or should be. *Thou mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst be.*

Perfect — I, you, he; we, you or *ye*, they may, can, or must have been. *Thou mayst* or *canst have been.*

Past Perfect — I, you, he; we, you or *ye*, they might, could, would, or should have been. *Thou mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst have been.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present — *If* I be, you or *thou* be, he be; we be, you or *ye* be, they be.

Past — *If* I were, you were or *thou wert*, he were; we were, you or *ye* were, they were.

NOTE 1. This mood has, as peculiar to itself, only the two forms above given, preceded by *if*, &c. But, as auxiliary, they make a part of the passive and progressive forms. Shakspeare uses a special form in the present, *old style*; as, "If that thou *beest* a Roman," &c.

2. *Were* is sometimes used for *would be*, after a supposition, &c.; as, There *were* no need = there *would be* no need. This mode of expression is going out of use.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be, *or* do you *or* thou be; be, *or* do you *or* ye be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present — to be. *Perfect* — to have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect — being. *Perfect* — been. *Compound Perfect* — having been.

REMARK. 1. We have seen that a verb in the *Common Style* is not varied on account of the person and number of its subject, except in the *third person, singular*, of the present and perfect of the Indicative mood in the active form; and, in the progressive and passive forms, we shall find it vary just as the verb "be" varies, which is used as an auxiliary in the formation of the progressive and passive.

What is the form for the Potential past in common style? — in old style? — for the perfect? — for the past perfect? What is the peculiar form for the Subjunctive present? What for the past? What is the variation for the ancient style in the past? What are the forms of the Imperative mood? What is the form of the Infinitive present? — of the perfect? What is the imperfect participle? — perfect? — compound perfect? Where have we found the verb varied in the common style? How will it vary in the progressive and passive forms?

2. We have seen that a verb is varied also in the *second person, singular*, with a subject in the Formal or Solemn Style; as, Thou *lovest* or *dost* love.

3. The *old forms* of the present and perfect in the third person, singular, ending in "th," though found in books, are seldom used by late writers; as, *Present*, he *loveth* or *doth* love. *Perfect*, he *hath* loved.

4. The auxiliaries *do* and *did* are used for emphasis, and in asking questions; in the latter case, they precede the subject; as, John *did* go. *Did* John go? Also, *do* is used in the Imperative mood, in *entreaty* and *supplication*.

111. Conjugation of the regular, transitive verb, LOVE, in its several *forms*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present — love. *Past* — loved. *Perfect Participle* — loved.

REMARK. Three forms are used actively; namely, the simple, emphatic, and progressive; and one form passively, by the use of the perfect participle with the auxiliary "be." The emphatic form is made by using the auxiliaries *do* and *did* with the simple form of the verb; consequently there are only two tenses in this form, the Present and Past of the Indicative. The Imperative mood uses *do* in emphatic entreaty or supplication.

The following is a synopsis or connected view of these four forms of the verb *love*.

NOTE. The Ancient or Solemn Style is printed in *Italics*.

INDICATIVE MOOD — PRESENT.

SINGULAR.

	Simple.	*Emphatic.*	*Progressive.*	*Passive*
1.	I love,	do love,	am loving,	am loved
2.	You love,	do love,	are loving,	are loved
	Thou lovest,	*dost love*,	*art loving*,	*art loved*
3.	He loves *or* loveth,	does *or* doth love,	is loving,	is loved.

PLURAL.

	Simple.	*Emphatic.*	*Progressive.*	*Passive.*
1. We 2. You or *ye* 3. They	love,	do love,	are loving,	are loved.

The whole of what verb is used as an auxiliary in forming progressive and passive verbs? When is a verb varied in the second person, singular? How do the old forms of the present and perfect end? How are the auxiliaries *do* and *did* used? Give the verb "love" all through in each of its forms.

PAST.

SINGULAR.

	Simple.	*Emphatic.*	*Progressive.*	*Passive.*
1	I loved,	did love,	was loving,	was loved.
2.	You loved,	did love,	were loving,	were loved
	Thou lovedst,	*didst love*,	*wast loving*,	*wast loved.*
3.	He loved,	did love,	was loving,	was loved.

PLURAL.

1.	We			
2.	You or *ye* loved,	did love,	were loving,	were loved
3.	They			

FUTURE.

SINGULAR.

	Simple.	*Progressive.*	*Passive.*
1.	I shall or will		
2.	You shall or will *Thou shalt or wilt* love,	be loving,	be loved.
3.	He shall or will		

PLURAL.

1.	We shall or will		
2.	You or *ye* shall or will love,	be loving,	be loved.
3.	They shall or will		

PERFECT.

SINGULAR.

1.	I have		
2.	You have *Thou hast* loved,	been loving,	been loved.
3.	He has or hath		

PLURAL.

1.	We have		
2.	You or *ye* have loved,	been loving,	been loved.
3.	They have		

PAST PERFECT.

SINGULAR.

	Simple.	*Progressive.*	*Passive.*
1.	I had		
2.	You had / *Thou hadst*	been loving,	been loved
3.	He had		

PLURAL.

1.	We had		
2.	You or *ye* had	been loving,	been loved
3.	They had		

FUTURE PERFECT.

SINGULAR.

1.	I shall have		
2.	You will have / *Thou wilt have*	been loving,	been loved.
3.	He will have		

PLURAL.

1.	We shall have		
2.	You or *ye* will have	been loving,	been loved
3.	They will have		

POTENTIAL MOOD — PRESENT.

SINGULAR.

1.	I		
2.	You / may, can, or must	love,	be loving, be loved.
3.	He		
2.	*Thou mayst, &c.,*		

PLURAL.

1.	We		
2.	You or *ye* / may, can, or must	love,	be loving, be loved.
3.	They		

PAST.

SINGULAR.

1.	I		
2.	You / might, could, would, or should	love,	be loving, be loved.
3.	He		
2.	*Thou mightst, &c.,*		

PLURAL.

		Simple	*Progressive.*	*Passive.*
1. We 2. You or *ye* 3. They	might, could, would, or should	love,	be loving,	be loved.

PERFECT.

SINGULAR.

1. I 2. You 3. He	may, can, or must have	loved,	been loving,	been loved.
2. *Thou mayst, &c., have been*				

PLURAL.

1. We 2. You or *ye* 3. They	may, can, or must have	loved,	been loving,	been loved.

PAST PERFECT.

SINGULAR.

1. I 2. You 3. He	might, could, would, or should have	loved,	been loving,	been loved
2. *Thou mightst, &c., have*				

PLURAL.

1. We 2. You or *ye* 3. They	might, could, would, or should have	loved,	been loving,	been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE — PRESENT.

SINGULAR.	*Prog.*	*Pass.*	PLURAL.	*Prog.*	*Pass*
1. *If* I be 2. *If* you or *thou* be 3. *If* he be	loving,	loved.	We be You or *ye* be They be	loving,	loved

IMPERFECT.

1. *If* I were 2. *If* you were / *thou wert* 3. *If* he were	loving	loved.	We were You or *ye* were They were	loving,	loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Simple. *Singular.* Love, love you or *thou*, do you or *thou* love;
Plural. Love, love you or *ye*, do you or *ye* love.

Progressive. *Singular.* Be loving, be you or *thou* loving, do you or *thou* be loving. *Plural.* Be loving, be you or *ye* loving, do you or *ye* be loving.

Passive. *Singular.* Be loved, be you or *ye* loved, do you or *ye* be loved. *Plural.* Be loved, be you or *ye* loved, do you or *ye* be loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Simple.	*Present* — to love.		*Perfect* — to have loved.	
Progressive.	"	to be loving,	"	to have been loving.
Passive.	"	to be loved,	"	to have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Simple. *Imperfect* — loving, *Perfect* — loved,
Compound Perfect, having loved,

Progressive.	*Compound Perfect.*	having been loving,	
Passive.	*Present* — being loved,	"	" having been loved.

MODEL.

The war-cry has ceased; the council-fire is fast going out; and the hopes of the red man will soon be extinguished.

This sentence is composed of three independent clauses, connected by "and" *implied* between the first two, and *expressed* between the last two. The *subjects* are "war-cry," "council-fire," and "hopes;" the *predicates*, "has ceased," "is going," and "will be extinguished."

"HAS CEASED" is a verb used here to *assert* of "war-cry" its cessation. *Principal Parts*, cease, ceased, ceased. *Regular*, forms its Past tense and Perfect participle by adding *d* only, as the simple verb ends in *e* silent. *Intransitive*, does not require an *object* to receive its action. *Active*, as its subject is the *agent* or doer, not the *receiver* of the action. *Indicative mood*, simply expresses or declares

the action. *Perfect tense*, predicates action *finished* at the present time. As its *subject*, "war-cry," is third person, singular, the verb becomes "has ceased," instead of "have ceased," being in one of the only two tenses varied on account of the person and number of the subject.

"Is going" is a verb, used here to assert something of its subject, "council-fire." *Principal Parts*, go, went, going, gone. *Irregular*, does not form its Past tense and Perfect participle by adding *ed* to the simple form "go." *Intransitive*, admitting no direct object to limit or modify its action. *Progressive form*, denotes definitely an unfinished and continuing action. *Indicative mood*, simple declaration or assertion. *Present tense*, denotes present time and incomplete action. The Progressive form is made by prefixing some part of the auxiliary verb "be" before the imperfect participle of any verb. As its *subject* is third person, singular, the verb takes the form "is going," which is the one appropriated to that person and number.

"Will be extinguished" is a verb, here used to assert the destruction of "hopes," its subject. *Principal Parts*, extinguish, extinguished, extinguishing, extinguished. *Regular*, forms its Past tense and participle by adding *ed* to the simple form. *Transitive*, requires an object to receive its action. *Passive form*, as "hopes," the object of the action, and receiver of it, is here the subject-nominative of the verb. *Indicative mood*, simple assertion. *Future tense*, denotes future time. Its subject "hopes" is third person, plural; but a verb in this tense in common style is not varied on account of the person and number of its subject.

EXERCISES.

Direction. *Parse the* verbs *only, as in the above Model.*

The boy recited his lesson. The boy was reciting his lesson. The lesson was recited by the boy. He may be chosen. He might have been elected. Go in peace, and return in safety. The men will soon return. John has gone to school. John recites his lessons well. The task has been accomplished. The book had fallen from his hand. He will be frozen. The child slept well.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil write out in full the* conjugation *of each of the following* verbs *in the Simple, Emphatic, and Progressive forms; also, of all the* transitive verbs *in the Passive form.*

Live,	lived,	lived.
Give,	gave,	given.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Deny,	denied,	denied.
Say,	said,	said.
Find,	found,	found.
Commit,	committed,	committed.
Wait,	waited,	waited.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.

REMARK. The INTERROGATIVE form is used in asking questions; and the subject is generally placed between the auxiliary and the verb; as, Does he love? Was he loved? Did they love? Has he been loved?

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil write some of the above* verbs *in the interrogative form.*

The following Paradigms *are given in full, for reference, and* not *for study.*

112. CONJUGATION of the irregular, transitive verb TEACH.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present,	*Past*,	*Imperfect Participle*,	*Perfect Participle*,
teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.

113. SIMPLE ACTIVE FORM.

NOTE. The Ancient or Solemn Style is put in Italics.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present, Singular — first person I teach, *second*, you teach or *thou teachest*, *third*, he teaches; *Plural* — 1. We teach, 2, you or *ye* teach, 3, they teach.

Past — I taught, you taught or *thou taughtest*, he taught; we taught, you or *ye* taught, they taught.

Future — I shall or will teach, you shall or will teach or *thou shalt* or *wilt teach*, he shall or will teach; we shall or will teach, you or *ye* shall or will teach, they shall or will teach.

Perfect — I have taught, you have taught or *thou hast taught*, he has or hath taught; we have taught, you or *ye* have taught, they have taught.

Past Perfect — I had taught, you had taught or *thou hadst taught*, he had taught; we had taught, you or *ye* had taught, they had taught.

Future Perfect — I shall have taught, you will have taught or *thou wilt have taught*, he will have taught; we shall have taught, you or *ye* will have taught, they will have taught.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Present — I do teach, you do teach or *thou dost teach*, he does or doth teach; we do teach, you or *ye* do teach, they do teach.

Past — I did teach, you did teach or *thou didst teach*, he did teach; we did teach, you or *ye* did teach, they did teach.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

Do I teach? Did they teach? Has he taught? &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present — I may, can, or must teach, – you may, can, or must teach, or *thou mayst*, *canst*, or *must teach*, — he may, can, or must teach; we may, can, or must teach, – you or *ye* may, can, or must teach, – they may, can, or must teach.

Past — I might, could, would, or should teach, – you might, could, would, or should teach, or *thou mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst teach*, – he might, could, would, or should teach; we might, could, would, or should teach, – you or *ye* might, could, would, or should teach, – they might, could, would, or should teach.

Perfect — I may, can, or must have taught, – you may, can, or must have taught, or *thou mayst*, *canst*, or *must have taught*, – he may, can, or must have taught; we may, can, or must have taught, – you or *ye* may, can, or must have taught, – they may, can, or must have taught.

Past Perfect — I might, could, would, or should have taught, – you might, could, would, or should have taught, or *thou mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst have taught*, – he might, could would, or should have taught; we might, could, would, or should have taught, – you or *ye* might, could, would, or should have taught, – they might, could, would, or should have taught.

IMPERATIVE.

Teach thou, or do thou or you teach; teach ye, or do you or ye teach.

INFINITIVE.

Present — to teach. *Perfect* — to have taught.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect — teaching. *Simple Perfect* — taught.
Compound Perfect — having taught.

114. PASSIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE.

Present — I am taught, you are taught or *thou art taught*, he is taught; we are taught, you or *ye* are taught, they are taught.

Past — I was taught, you were taught or *thou wast taught*, he was taught; we were taught, you or *ye* were taught, they were taught.

Future — I shall or will be taught, you shall or will be taught or *thou shalt* or *wilt be taught*, he shall or will be taught; we shall or will be taught, you or *ye* shall or will be taught they shall or will be taught.

Perfect — I have been taught, you have been taught or *thou hast been taught*, he has been taught; we have been taught, you or *ye* have been taught, they have been taught.

Past Perfect — I had been taught, you had been taught or *thou hadst been taught*, he had been taught; we had been taught, you or *ye* had been taught, they had been taught.

Future Perfect — I shall have been taught, you will have been taught or *thou wilt have been taught*, he will have been taught; we shall have been taught, you or *ye* will have been taught, they will have been taught.

POTENTIAL.

Present — I may, can, or must be taught, – you may, can, or must be taught, or *thou mayst*, *canst*, or *must be taught*, – he may, can, or must be taught; we may, can, or must be taught, – you or *ye* may, can, or must be taught, – they may, can, or must be taught.

Past — I might, could, would, or should be taught, – you might, could, would, or should be taught, or *thou mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst be taught*, – he might, could, would, or should be taught; we might, could, would, or should be taught, – you or *ye* might, could, would, or should be taught, – they might, could, would, or should be taught.

Perfect — I may, can, or must have been taught, – you may, can, or must have been taught, or *thou mayst*, *canst*, or *must have been taught*, – he may, can, or must have been taught; we may, can, or must have been taught, – you or *ye* may, can, or must have been taught, – they may, can, or must have been taught.

Past Perfect — I might, could, would, or should have been taught, – you might, could, would, or should have been taught, or *thou mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst have been taught*, – he might, could, would, or should have been taught; we might, could, would, or should have been taught, – you or *ye* might, could, would, or should have been taught, – they might, could, would, or should have been taught.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present — *If* I be taught, you or *thou* be taught, he be taught; we be taught, you or *ye* be taught, they be taught.

Past — *If* I were taught, you were taught or *thou wert taught*, he were taught; we were taught, you or *ye* were taught, they were taught.

IMPERATIVE.

Be taught, be *thou* taught, or do you or *thou* be taught; be taught, be *ye* taught, or do you or *ye* be taught.

INFINITIVE.

Present — to be taught. *Perfect* — to have been taught

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect — being taught. *Perfect* — taught.
Compound Perfect — having been taught.

115. PROGRESSIVE FORM.

The same as the Passive, except *teaching* takes the place of *taught*. Only the Compound Perfect form of the participle is much used; as, *Having been teaching*.

DIRECTION. *The pupil may write on his slate the full form of the* progressive *in all its parts.*

116. The following verbs are irregular in one or more of their principal parts.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle*
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode.
Am *or* be,	was,	being,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Bear, to produce,	bore, *bare*,	bearing,	born.
Bear,* to sustain,	bore, *bare*,	bearing,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten, beat.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Bend,	bent,	bending,	bent, bended.
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bidding,	bidden, bid,
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke, brake,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden, chid
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave, to split,	clove, cleft,	cleaving,	cloven, cloft.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	creeping,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw	drew,	drawing,	drawn.

* *Bare* in either verb is not used by late writers.

Present	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drank, drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Eat,	eat, ate,	eating,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	forgetting,	forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
Get,	got,	getting,	got, gotten.
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held, holden.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurting,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lade,*	laded,	lading,	laden.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.
Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie, to lie down,	lay,	lying,	lain.
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meaning,	meant.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Read,	read,	reading,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.

* *Lade*, to dip, and *lie*, to tell a falsehood, are regular.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Ride,	rode,	riding,	rode, ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Run,	ran,	running,	run.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Show, shew,	showed, shewed,	showing,	shown.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk, shrank,	shrinking,	shrunk.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Sing,	sang, sung,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sank, sunk,	sinking,	sunk.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slid, slidden
Sling,	slung, *slang*,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten, *smit*.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	speaking,	spoken.
Speed,	sped,	speeding,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,	spitting,	spit.
Split,	split,	splitting,	split.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprang, sprung,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stole.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stride,	strode, strid,	striding,	stridden, strid.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck, stricken.
String,	strung,	stringing,	strung.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle*	*Perfect Participle.*
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tare,	tore, tare,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Throw,	threw,	throwing,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden, trod
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound,	winding,	wound.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.

117. The following verbs, besides the irregular forms here given, have also the regular forms.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle*
Awake,	awoke,	awaking,	awaked.
Bereave,	bereft,	bereaving,	bereft.
Blend,	blended,	blending,	blent.
Build,	built,	building,	built.
Burn,	burnt,	burning,	burnt.
Catch,	caught,	catching,	caught.
Cleave, to adhere,	clave,	cleaving,	cleaved.
Clothe,	clad,	clothing,	clad.
Crow,	crew,	crowing,	crowed.
Dare, to venture,	durst,*	daring,	dared.
Deal,	dealt,	dealing,	dealt.
Dig,	dug,	digging,	dug.
Dream,	dreamt,	dreaming,	dreamt.
Dwell,	dwelt,	dwelling,	dwelt.
Gild,	gilt,	gilding,	gilt.
Gird,	girt,	girding,	girt.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graven.

* Dare, *to challenge*, is always regular.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Hang,	hung,*	hanging,	hung.
Heave,	hove,	heaving,	heaved.
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewn.
Kneel,	knelt,	kneeling,	knelt.
Knit,	knit,	knitting,	knit.
Light,	lit,	lighting,	lit.
Load,	loaded,	loading,	laden.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mown.
Pen, to enclose.	pent,	penning,	pent.
Quit,	quit,	quitting,	quit.
Rive,	rived,	riving,	riven.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawn.
Seethe,	sod,	seething,	sodden.
Shape,	shaped,	shaping,	shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shearing,	shorn.
Shine,	shone,	shining,	shone.
Slit,	slit,	slitting,	slit.
Sow, to scatter,	sowed,	sowing,	sown.
Spell,	spelt,	spelling,	spelt.
Spill,	spilt,	spilling,	spilt.
Strew,	strewed,	strewing,	strewn.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strown.
Sweat,	sweat,	sweating,	sweat.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swolled.
Wet,	wet,	wetting,	wet.
Whet,	whet,	whetting,	whet.
Work,	wrought,	working,	wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wringing,	wrung.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

118. A defective verb is one that is wanting in some of its parts; as, Can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, ought, quoth, beware, and hark.

REMARK 1. *Wis*, and its past tense *wist*, are found only in old writers. *Wit*, to know, and its past tense *wot*, are seldom found, and only in old writings; but its infinitive *to wit*, meaning *namely*, is still used.

---

* *Hang*, to deprive of life by hanging, *pen*, to write, and *sew*, to sew cloth, are regular. *Strew* is going out of use; it is pronounced like *strow*, and the latter spelling is prevailing. *Shew*, pronounced like *show*, has given place to it.

2. *Quoth I, quoth he,* and *quoth they,* in the present and past tenses, are used only by quaint writers. *Beware* (be aware) is used chiefly in the Imperative and Infinitive. *Hark* is mostly confined to the Imperative. *Ought* becomes *oughtest* in the Solemn or Formal style.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

119. An impersonal verb asserts being, action, or a state of things, where the agent, well known, unknown or indefinite, is represented generally by the pronoun *it;* as, it rains, it thunders, it lightens, it freezes, it hails, &c. Such expressions are used chiefly in respect to the state of the weather, atmosphere, &c.

REMARK 1. Methinks = I think, methought = I thought, meseems = it seems to me, and meseemed = it seemed to me, &c., are anomalies, and may be classed here.

2. In such expressions as "*they say,*" &c., *they* is used to represent indefinitely persons unknown or persons *in general, somebody, &c.*

FORMS AND PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

PRINCIPAL PARTS — Regular, Irregular, Defective.
KINDS — Transitive, Intransitive.
TRANSITIVE FORMS — Simple Active, Emphatic, Progressive, Passive.
INTRANSITIVE FORMS — Simple Active, Emphatic, Progressive.
MOODS — Indicative, Potential, Subjunctive, Imperative, Infinitive.
TENSES — Present; Past, Future, Perfect, Past Perfect, Future Perfect.
NUMBER — Singular, Plural.
PERSON — First, Second, Third.

PARTICIPLES.

ACTIVE FORMS — Imperfect, Simple Perfect, Compound Perfect.
PASSIVE FORMS — Imperfect, Compound Perfect.

What is an impersonal verb? Give examples. How are such expressions used? What anomalies? — general expressions? Give the forms and properties of verbs — of participles.

FORM FOR PARSING THE VERB.

Regular or irregular in formation of principal parts; give the parts; *how* formed; transitive or intransitive, and *why;* in what form; how the subject is affected by the *manner* of the assertion; what mood, and *why;* what tense, and *why;* varied or not on account of the number and person of its subject, and *how.*

FORM FOR PARSING THE PARTICIPLE.

From what verb derived; the form; in what relation used; when in the relation of the adjective, parse it as an adjective; when in the relation of a noun, as a noun.

MODEL.

Were John successful, it might render him anxious to try again.

In this compound sentence the dependent and subordinate clause is connected with the independent clause by the conjunction "if" implied; as, "Were John successful" = if John were successful = if John should be successful, &c.

"It," substituted for the clause containing the supposition, is the subject, unmodified, of the independent clause, and "might render" is the predicate, which is directly modified by "him," and "him" by "anxious," and "anxious" indirectly by the phrase "to try again." The modified predicate. then, is all of the clause except the subject "it."

"John" is the subject of the subordinate or dependent clause, and "were" is the predicate, which is modified by "successful;" the quality denoted by "successful" is asserted of John in the predicate, instead of being *assumed.* "John" is a *proper* noun, name of an *individual; masculine* gender, of a male being; *singular,* of *one; third* person, spoken of; *nominative* case, because it is the subject of the assertion, and if a personal pronoun be substituted for "John" the appropriate form will be "he," which is the special form for the *nominative* of that gender and number.

"Were," the predicate of the subjoined clause, is used to assert, and is, therefore, a *verb. Be, was, been,* irregular. Intransitive. cannot take a direct object after it. *Subjunctive* mood, used in a

---

Give the forms for parsing a verb and participle.

subjoined and dependent clause to express a supposition, by one of the *peculiar* forms found only in this verb or auxiliary, "if" being *implied*. *Past* tense, and not varied for the person and number of its subject.

"It" is a *personal pronoun*, showing by a special form the person, number, and gender, of what it represents; here substituted for the dependent or subordinate clause, and representing the fact *supposed* in it. *Third* person, *singular; nominative* case, and is the grammatical subject of the clause. The form being the same in the nominative and objective, does not indicate the case.

"Might render" is a *verb*, here used to *assert*. *Principal parts*, Present *render*, Past *rendered*, Perfect Participle *rendered*. *Regular*, because its past tense and perfect participle are formed by adding *ed* to the simple form of the verb. *Transitive*, as it takes after it a direct object, "him," which has the form of the objective case. The *Simple Active* form, the subject-nominative being the agent or doer, not the *receiver* of the action; the receiver or object of the action is "him" in the objective. *Potential* mood, expressing possibility or power, by the auxiliary *might*. *Past* tense in form, but future in meaning, the definitions of the tenses seldom applying in this mood. A verb in this mood is not varied by the person and number of its subject.

"To try" is a *regular* verb, *try*, *tried*, *tried; intransitive*, takes no object after it, and here used in the sense *to make an attempt, to make an effort; Infinitive* mood, *simple* form used to denote purpose, and limits "anxious," showing for what "it would render him anxious."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give clausal and phrasal analysis, and, according to model, parse the* verbs *and their subjects, giving kind, form, properties, and modifying relations.*

We may scatter the seeds of courtesy and kindness around us at little expense. We shall not see in life the end of human actions. Half a quire of foolscap had been folded into the shape of a writing-book for me by the maternal hand, and I had succeeded in obtaining a penknife. Avoid slander as you would a scorpion. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other. Charity should begin at home, but should not end there.

By entertaining good thoughts, you will keep out evil ones. Men may be pleased with a jester, but they never esteem him. Show method in thy study, if thou wilt acquire true wisdom. The man was swimming for life. By learning to obey, you will know how to command. A thousand probabilities cannot make one truth. Ponder again and again on the divine law, for all things are contained therein.

ADJECTIVE.

120. An ADJECTIVE is a word used to define or limit the meaning of a noun, or to express a quality of the object named; as, three, old, industrious.

REMARK 1. Most adjectives may be used, by ellipsis, as nouns, when no obscurity can arise from such use; as, The *good* are happy.

2. An adjective used as a noun is always of the same number as the noun would be if expressed; it is generally preceded by the article "the," and is parsed as the noun would be, if supplied. It retains, also, its force as an adjective.

3. An adjective formed from a proper noun is called a proper adjective; as, *American* from America, *English* from England. All others must be common. This distinction may be disregarded, except in beginning *proper* adjectives with a capital letter.

4. Adjectives, used to define or limit, without expressing quality, are the NUMERAL adjectives, one, two, three, four, &c., called *cardinal;* first, second, third, fourth, &c., called *ordinal;* also, single, double or twofold, triple or threefold, &c. Others express quality, and describe.

5. The *cardinal* numerals are plural except the word "one" When used as nouns, they can take the plural form, and be declined like nouns; as, I will not destroy them for *ten's* sake. His bannered *millions* meet. They were all at *sixes* and *sevens*. They marched by *twos* and *threes*. They were sent off by *fifties* and *hundreds*.

What is an adjective? When can adjectives be used as nouns? Of what number are they when so used? How are they parsed? What is a *proper* adjective? What are numeral adjectives? Which are called cardinal? Which numeral?

Note 1. Usage sanctions the expressions, three couple, three score, three pair of shoes, five hundred, six thousand, &c.

2. Many is joined with a singular noun when *a* intervenes; as, Full *many* a gem. *Many* a man. *Many* a flower.

6. Two or more words joined together often form a *compound* adjective; as, shame-faced, moon-eyed, sky-blue; the *three-leaved* clover; a *four-footed* animal.

7. Nouns are sometimes used as adjectives; as, A *gold* ring, a *silver* pitcher, an *iron* post, a *stone* wall.

COMPARISON.

An adjective may be made to express different degrees of quality; as, useful, more useful, most useful; less useful, least useful.

121. The different degrees of comparison are called Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

122. An adjective in the *positive form* simply expresses the quality of an object; as, useful, wise. Thus, he is a *useful* man. He is a *wise* man.

123. The *comparative form* expresses a higher or lower degree of the quality; as, more useful, less useful; wiser, less wise. Thus, Iron is *more useful* than brass. John is *less wise* than his brothers. William is *wiser* than he was.

124. The *superlative form* expresses the highest or lowest degree of the quality; as, most useful, least useful. Thus, Iron is the *most useful* metal. Solomon was the *wisest* of men.

Remark. The different degrees of comparison are made by changing the termination of an adjective, or by prefixing certain adverbs to its simple form.

125. Adjectives of one syllable are generally made to express a higher degree by adding *r* or *er*, and the highest by adding *st* or *est*, to the positive form; as, wise, wiser, wisest; black, blacker, blackest; sad, sadder, saddest.

126. Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally made to

What is a compound adjective? Give the examples of adjectives compared.

express a higher degree by prefixing *more*, and the highest by prefixing *most*, to the positive form; as, famous, more famous, most famous; industrious, more industrious, most industrious.

127. Adjectives are made to express a lower degree of the quality by prefixing *less*, and the lowest by prefixing *least*, to the positive form; as, wise, less wise, least wise.

128. Adjectives of two syllables, ending in *y* or silent *e*, are generally compared like monosyllables, but may be by adverbs; as, simple, simpler or more simple, simplest or most simple; holy, holier or more holy, holiest or most holy.

NOTE. Where *er* or *est* is added to a word ending in *y*, the *y* is changed to *i*, as above.

129. Some adjectives are compared irregularly; as, positive good, comparative better, superlative best, bad, ill or evil, worse, worst; far, farther or further, farthest or furthest; fore, former, foremost or first; hind, hinder, hindermost or hindmost; little, less or lesser, least; late, later or latter, latest or last; low, lower, lowermost or lowest; much or many, more, most; near, nearer, nearest or next; old, older or elder, oldest or eldest.

130. The following lack the *positive* or simple form; as, comparative inner, superlative innermost or inmost; nether, nethermost; upper, uppermost or upmost; under, undermost; outer or utter, outermost or utmost.

131. The adverbs, *very*, *exceedingly*, *indeed*, *much*, &c., are used with adjectives to increase the degree of the quality; as, *very* good, *very* good *indeed*, *much* better, *exceedingly* abundant, the *very* best.

132. The termination *ish* is sometimes added to an adjective to diminish the degree of the quality designated; as, black, blackish; red, reddish.

133. Numeral adjectives, and those denoting shape, material, or position, or a quality incapable of increase or diminution, and those already comparative or superlative in signification, are seldom compared; as, twenty, round, horizontal, dead, right, perfect, rear, inferior, front.

What other adverbs may be prefixed to adjectives to increase the degree? What is the effect of the termination "*ish*"? What adjectives are seldom compared?

Remark 1. Good usage, however, admits of comparison in some of the above classes; as, He was *more free* in his manners than his brother. This book is *more perfect* than the preceding copies.

2. Old writers frequently compared adjectives not now compared, and even used double comparatives and superlatives, now studiously avoided; as, The *chiefest* among ten thousand. The *most straitest* sect. This was the *most unkindest* cut of all.

FORM FOR PARSING AN ADJECTIVE.

If it admits of comparison, tell the degree, and what it limits.

MODEL.

With its clear streams, beautiful flowers, and noble trees, the old homestead offered to the weary a most welcome repose.

A simple sentence, with "homestead" for its *subject*, and "offered" for its *predicate*. The other parts are *subordinate*, modifying these two *essential* parts.

"Homestead" is directly modified by the *definite* or *demonstrative* word "the," and by the *descriptive* word "old," and indirectly by the three descriptive phrases that precede, connected together by "and" expressed or implied.

"Offered" is directly limited by the objective phrase "a most welcome repose;" and indirectly by the phrase "to the weary."

The noun "streams" is directly modified by the word "its," a substitute for "homestead," and "clear," expressing the quality of the streams, and describing their condition as to the purity and transparency of the water.

The noun "flowers" is directly modified by "beautiful," describing their appearance.

The noun "trees" is directly modified by "noble," describing them as to quality and appearance.

"Weary" is a word used here to describe *objects* so clearly known to be human beings, that the word *persons* may be better *implied* than expressed; and the *definite* word "the." that would limit "persons" if expressed, here limits "weary." The phrase, "the weary" = those or the persons who are weary.

The noun "repose" is directly modified by the phrase "most welcome," describing its quality, and imputing that quality in the highest degree.

"Homestead" is a *common* noun; *no sex*, therefore *neuter* gender; *third* person, *singular*, and *nominative* case, grammatical subject of the sentence; the *modified* subject being "homestead" and all the words that precede it.

"Offered," the grammatical predicate, here used to assert something of "homestead," is a verb. *Present* offer, *Past* offered, *Perfect Participle* offered; *regular*, forming its principal parts by adding *ed* to the simple form. *Transitive*, having the noun "repose" as the direct *object* of its action, limiting the *offer* to that single thing. In the *Active form*, because the subject-nominative is the *agent* or *doer*, and not the *receiver* of the act asserted. *Indicative mood*, it *simply declares*. *Past tense*, it denotes an action, in past time, incomplete or continuing; as, *offered = was offering*, denoting continuance, or an unfinished act. A verb in this tense is not varied, in Common Style, on account of the *person* and *number* of its *subject*.

"Clear," describing "streams," is an adjective; positive or simple form *clear*, comparative *clearer*, superlative *clearest*. In the positive degree, attributing to the "streams" the quality of water called clearness.

"Beautiful," here descriptive of "flowers," and assuming for them the quality of beauty, is an adjective, in the simple form or positive degree; as, positive *beautiful*, comparative *more beautiful*, superlative *most beautiful*.

"Noble," describing "trees" and telling their quality, is an adjective of two syllables ending in silent *e*, and therefore generally compared by *r* and *st;* as, *noble*, *nobler*, *noblest*. Here it is in the simple form or positive degree.

"Old" describes "homestead" as possessing the quality of age, and is an adjective in the simple form, compared thus; positive *old*, comparative *older*, superlative *oldest*.

"Weary" describes objects not expressed, but capable of *being tired*, as the quality of weariness is assumed for them; here obviously from the connection, "weary persons"; thus "weary" is an adjective in the simple form. But, as the phrase "the weary" is substituted for "weary persons," the word "weary" is here used in the relation of a *noun*, and is to be parsed as such. It is in the

plural number, substituted for "persons," as adjectives used in the relation of nouns are always of the same number as the nouns they represent. It also retains its adjective signification of *quality*. Its case-relation is found to be objective by substituting the appropriate personal pronoun "them," the special form for the objective case.

"Most welcome" is a phrase describing "repose," as possessing the quality in the highest degree. It is an adjective, in the superlative degree; as, *welcome*, *more welcome*, *most welcome*. Although a dissyllable ending in silent *e*, yet it is compared by the adverbs *more* and *most*.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the following sentences, giving the clausal and phrasal relations, and parse the* adjectives *in accordance with the model.*

The grim warriors of Israel marched into the defenceless city. The people awoke at earliest dawn. The strong encourage the weak, the young are obedient to the aged. A thin mist, curling upward, reveals the white tents of Israel gleaming in the soft light of early dawn. The days are calm; the nights are tranquil; the apples drop in the stillest hours. More dear, less beautiful than June, September is the heart's month. If our unselfish eye would behold it, August is the most populous and the happiest month. Fish seek the deeper pools, and the air is resonant of insect orchestras.

ARTICLES.

134. An ARTICLE is a word used with a noun to limit its meaning, without expressing quality.

135. A or AN is called the *indefinite* article, and THE the *definite* article.

REMARK 1. "Give me *a* book." Only *one* book is here required, and *any* book would answer the request, as no *definite* one is specified It merely limits in number, but in other respects is *indefinite*.

What is an article? Which is the definite article? Which the indefinite?

2. "Give me the book." Here some *particular* book is specified, which alone will answer the request, "Give me the books." The request is still definite.

136. The *Indefinite* article *a* or *an* limits a noun to *one*, but not a *particular*, object; as, Bring me *a* book. Bring me *an* apple.

Remark. Here the article *a* or *an* restricts to one book or apple, but is indefinite as to *what* book or apple. It is equivalent to the word "*any*," restricted to the singular number.

137. The *Definite* article *the* limits nouns to particular objects; as, Give me *the* book or books.

Remark 1. Give me *the* book or books = Give me *this* or *that* book, or *these* or *those* books. Here the article "*the*" is nearly equivalent to the demonstrative adjective pronouns *this* or *that*, *these* or *those*.

2. *A* is used before a word beginning with a *consonant sound;* as, A man, a boy, a union, a young man, a eulogy, a wonder, a useful person, many a one, such a use, a yew tree, a ewer.

3. *An* is used before a word beginning with a *vowel* sound, or the sound of *h* when the accent is on the second syllable; as, An ox, an apple, an hour, an honorable man, an heroic exploit, an historical fact.

4. *A*, though singular, is often used before an adjective of number; as, A few men, a great many men.

5. A noun used without an article is unrestricted, and is generally taken in its widest sense. Thus, the word *man*, without an article before it, stands for mankind or the human race. Sometimes the use of the article gives a general signification; as, The horse is *a* useful animal = horses are useful animals.

6. The omission of the article *a* sometimes renders the proposition *negative;* as, The man had few thoughts and little wisdom. The

---

How does the indefinite article limit nouns? — the definite? Where is *a* used? — *an*? — a noun without an article? The omission of *a*?

man had a few thoughts and a little wisdom. The first sentence is *negative;* the second, *affirmative.*

FORM FOR PARSING AN ARTICLE.

Definite, indefinite, *why?* Form; when *a* is used, *why?* when *an* is used, *why?*

MODEL.

An hour had passed, an awful hour in a night of storm and tempest, and the boat yet struggled with the waves.

This sentence consists of two independent assertions, connected by "and." "Hour," the subject of the first clause, is directly modified by "an," limiting it to *one*, but *indefinite* as to what hour. It is also directly modified by the phrase, "an awful hour," which is repeated for emphasis, in apposition with the first word "hour," denoting the same period of time.

The second word "hour" is directly modified by the descriptive word "awful," and by "an"; it is also indirectly modified by the phrase "in a night," which phrase is indirectly modified by the descriptive phrase "of storm and tempest." "Night" is directly modified by "a." The modified subject is the whole clause except "had passed."

"Boat," the subject of the second clause, is directly modified by "the," limiting it *definitely* to a *particular* boat.

"Struggled," the predicate, is directly modified by "yet," and indirectly by the phrase "with the waves."

"Hour" is a common noun, neuter gender, singular number, third person, and nominative case. (Why?)

The indefinite article "an," modifying "hour," is used because it is followed by a word beginning with a *vowel sound.*

"Had passed," the predicate unmodified, is used to assert, and is, therefore, a *verb.* Principal parts, *pass*, *passed*, *passed*, regular. (Why?) It may be either transitive or intransitive, according to the sense; here intransitive, requiring no object after it. *Simple Active* form; *Indicative* mood, simply declares an act. *Past Perfect* tense, denotes that the action was completed in past time. This

tense is not varied on account of the person and number of the subject.

"An" is an article modifying "hour," used before "awful," beginning with a vowel sound. It is *indefinite*, meaning *any* hour consistent with the succeeding restrictions or limitations.

"Awful" is a descriptive *adjective*, attributing a quality to "hour"; in the positive or simple form.

"A" is an article modifying "night"; *indefinite*, meaning *any* "night" under the restriction of the limiting phrases "of storm and tempest."

"Boat" is a common noun, neuter gender, singular, third person, and nominative case. (Why?)

"The" is a *definite article* and modifies boat, limiting it to a particular *boat*. Thus, "the boat" is the modified subject.

"Struggled," the grammatical predicate, used to assert something of "boat," is a *regular* verb, forming its Past tense and Perfect Participle by adding *d* to the simple form; as, *struggle*, *struggled*, *struggled*. *Intransitive*, allowing no direct object after it, and making complete sense with its subject. *Simple Active* form.

Past tense, denotes an action *continued* in past time, *unfinished;* as, *struggled = was struggling*. A verb in this tense is not varied in the *Simple Active* form on account of the person and number of its subject.

"Waves," which indirectly modifies "struggled," with which it is connected by "with," is a common noun, third, neuter, plural. (Why?) To ascertain the case, answer, by an appropriate personal pronoun, the question, "*With what?*" The answer will be "*With them.*" "Them" is the special form for the *objective*, *third*, *plural;* therefore "waves" is in the *objective case*.

"The" is used to specify particular *objects;* it is, therefore, a *definite* article, and modifies "waves."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the following sentences as in the above model, giving the clausal and phrasal relations, and parse the* noun, verb, adjective, *and* article, *so far as it regards kinds, forms, properties, or modifying relations.*

Make the proper treatment of friends a habit. The works of Shakspeare, and the English Bible, were his special study. The

foundation of a monument to the memory of the early friends of American Independence, we have now laid. An aged man, without an enemy in the world, is made the victim of a butcherly murder, for mere pay. Beauty is an all-pervading presence; it unfolds in the numberless flowers of the spring.

PRONOUNS.

138. A PRONOUN is a word used as a substitute for a noun; as, John lost *his* book.

139. Pronouns may be divided into personal, adjective, relative, and interrogative.

REMARK 1. Personal pronouns have appropriate forms to indicate the grammatical *person* of the nouns they represent; as, *first* person, I, my or mine, me, we, our, us; *second* person, thou, thy or thine, thee, you or ye, your; *third* person, he, she, it, his, her, its, him, they, their, them.

2. Personal pronouns of the third person and singular number have appropriate forms to denote the *gender* of the nouns they represent; as, *masculine*, he, his, him; *feminine*, she, her; *neuter*, it, its.

3. Personal pronouns generally have appropriate forms to indicate the *case-relation* in which they stand to other words in a sentence; as, *nominative* I, we, thou, ye, he, she, they; *possessive* my or mine, thy or thine, our, your, his, its, their; *objective* me, us, thee, him, them.

EXCEPTION. *You* and *it* are in the nominative and objective, and *her* is found in the possessive and objective.

4. Personal pronouns generally have appropriate forms to denote the number of the nouns they represent, as, *singular*, I, my, or mine,

---

What is a pronoun? How are pronouns classed? What are personal pronouns? Which pronouns are of the first person? — of the second? — third? What pronouns have forms to denote gender? Which forms are for the masculine? — feminine? — neuter? Which forms of the pronouns are in the nominative case? — possessive? — objective. In what two cases are *you* and *it* found? In what two is *her* found?

me. thou, thy, or thine, thee, he, his, him, she, her, it, its; *plural*, we, our, us, ye, they, their, them.

EXCEPTION. *You* and *your* are in both numbers.

PROPERTIES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

PERSON — First, Second, Third.
NUMBER — Singular, Plural.
GENDER — (*only in third, singular*) Masculine, Feminine, Neuter.
CASE — Nominative, Possessive, Objective.

FORM FOR PARSING A PERSONAL PRONOUN.

Substituted for what; decline as in the table; number; person; gender (*if third, singular*); case-relation.

MODEL.

The boys desired John to visit them, and they are now expecting us to call for him on our way.

"Boys," the subject of the first clause, is modified by "the," limiting it to particular "boys." "Desired," the grammatical predicate, is modified by "John," and "John" by the phrase "to visit them." Thus, "desired John to visit them" is the modified predicate; and "the boys" is the modified subject. "Them" modifies "visit" as a direct object limiting its action.

"They" is the subject, unmodified, of the second clause. "Are expecting," the predicate, is directly modified by "now" and its object "us"; and "us" by the phrase "to call for him on our way." Thus, "are now expecting us to call for him on our way" is the modified predicate. "To call" is indirectly modified by the two phrases "for him" and "on our way."

Thus the sentence consists of two independent assertions, with the clauses connected by "and," making a compound sentence.

What forms of the pronouns are singular? — what plural? — what the same in both numbers? What is the form for parsing a personal pronoun?

"The" is a *definite* article, modifying "boys," limiting them to objects well known.

"Boys" is a *common* noun, *masculine*, *plural*, *third person* (*Why?*); *nominative* case, the subject of the clause; and, if the appropriate form of the personal pronoun is substituted for "boys," it will be *they*, the special form for the *nominative* of that person and number. "Desired," here used to assert something of "boys," is a *regular*, *transitive* verb; *desire*, *desired*, *desired;* forms its Past tense and Perfect Participle by adding *d* to the simple form; takes "John" as the object of its action. Simple Active form. *Indicative* mood and Past tense, and as such is not varied on account of the *number* and *person* of its subject.

"John" is a *proper* noun, *masculine*, *singular*, *third* person. (*Why?*) If represented by a personal pronoun, it must be by one of the special forms appropriated to the *third*, *singular*, *masculine*. By substituting these special forms, *he*, *his*, *him*, severally for "John," we find "him" to be the proper one, and that "John" is in the *objective* case.

"Visit" can be used to assert, and therefore by the definition is a *verb; visit*, *visited*, *visited*, forming its Past tense and Perfect Participle in the regular manner; *transitive*, takes a direct object after it; Infinitive mood, and present or simple form, used with "to" and without a subject-nominative, indefinitely; it modifies "John" by showing the purpose for which he was *desired*.

"Them" is a *pronoun*, because it is substituted for the noun "boys"; *personal*, because the *person* of the noun it represents is known by the form of the pronoun. Its special form here shows it to be *third* person, *plural*. "Boys" is masculine gender; but, as the form of the pronoun is not varied, in the plural, on account of gender, in parsing the *plural* of pronouns, *gender* may be disregarded. Nominative *they*, possessive *their*, objective *them;* in the objective case, the direct object of the transitive verb "visit."

"They" is a personal pronoun, representing "boys," and in the *nominative* case, as subject of "are expecting."

"Are expecting" is a *verb*, used here to assert something of "they," its subject; *expect*, *expected*, *expected*, regular, *transitive*, having "us" in the objective case as the direct object limiting its

action. *Progressive* form, made by prefixing some part of the auxiliary "be" to the imperfect participle of the verb; *Indicative* mood, simply declares; *Present* tense shows that the action is *unfinished, continuing*, or *going on* at the *present* time; *plural* form of auxiliary, because the subject "they" is plural.

"Us" is a *personal* pronoun, representing the *speaker* and *those with him* as a company. *Singular*, nominative *I*, possessive *my* or *mine*, objective *me; Plural*, nominative *we*, possessive *our*, objective *us*. Having the special form for the *first* person, *plural*, and *objective* case, it is the direct object of the transitive verb "are expecting," limiting and restricting the action of that verb to certain individuals included in the word "us."

"To call" *can* be used to *assert*, and is therefore a *verb*. *Call, called, called*, regular. It may be either transitive or intransitive, according to the sense; here it is *intransitive*, as it does not take a direct object, but is limited *indirectly* by "him" and "way," which are connected with it by "for" and "on." *Infinitive* mood, used with "to," and without a subject-nominative, in the simple form, and modifies "us," limiting their expectations with regard to "us" to this act or result.

"Him" is a personal pronoun, substituted for "John," and representing "John" in gender, number and person. Nominative *he*, possessive *his*, objective *him;* "him" is the special form for the *masculine*, *singular*, *third* person, *objective*, and indirectly limits the intransitive verb "call," with which it is connected by "for."

"Our" is a personal pronoun, showing, by special form, the person and number represented, and its own case. Like "us," it is substituted for the speaker, including those with him. Its form shows it to be *first* person, *plural*, and *possessive* case; it limits "way."

EXERCISES.

Analyze the following sentences, giving the clausal and phrasal relations; also those of nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, *and* personal pronouns, *with their kinds, forms and properties, parsing them according to the models.*

The shepherd gave the alarm, and lay down again in his plaid. These Covenanters may tumble down upon our heads pieces of rock from their hiding-places. The old man took notice of the

strangers, and waved them off with his hand. Gilbert Ainslie was a poor man; and he had been a poor man all the days of his life. Thou, William, still art young. I leave my example as a legacy to you, my children. The trees are now in their fullest foliage. Father called us, and we ran to him at once. George, mother asked for you; she wishes you to find the cow. I have lost my shoe-string.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

140. Personal pronouns united with *self*, form compound personal pronouns; as, myself, thyself or yourself, himself, herself, itself, and their plurals, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

Remark 1. They are used only in the nominative and objective cases, and the form is the same in each.

2. They are mostly used for emphasis; as, I did it *myself*, I *myself* did it. Here myself is in apposition with I.

3. Sometimes they are used reflexively, when the *agent* and object *acted upon* are the same; as, I blame *myself*. The man saved *himself*. Here each is the direct object of a transitive verb.

4. They are called compound *personal* pronouns because they have appropriate forms to indicate *the speaker*, the person *spoken to*, and the object *spoken of*.

NOMINATIVE AND OBJECTIVE.

	1st *Person.*	2d *Person.*	3d *Person.*		
			Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*
Sing.	Myself,	thyself or yourself,	himself,	herself,	itself
Plural.	Ourselves,	yourselves,	themselves (*without regard to gender*).		

How are compound personal pronouns formed? What are they? In which cases are they used? Do they vary in form on account of case? How are they used? Why called personal?

PROPERTIES OF COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

PERSON — First, Second, Third.
NUMBER — Singular, Plural.
GENDER — (*only in third, singular*) Masculine, Feminine, Neuter
CASE — Nominative, Objective.

FORM FOR PARSING A COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUN.

Substituted for what; decline as in table; number; person; gender (*if third singular*); used emphatically or reflexively; in what case-relation.

MODEL.

John did it himself, and he may blame himself for the result.

Here two independent clauses are connected by "and," expressing the relation of *addition*.

"John" is the subject of the first clause, and is directly modified by "himself," used here for *emphasis;* and "John himself" is the modified subject. "Did," the predicate, is directly modified by "it," as the object of the action, and "did it" is the modified predicate.

"He," substituted for "John," and representing "John" in gender, number, and person, is the subject of the second clause, and is not modified. "May blame," the predicate, is directly modified by "himself," here used reflexively, being the object of its action — and indirectly by the phrase "for the result"; and "may blame himself for the result" is the modified predicate.

"John" is a proper noun, third, singular, masculine, and nominative, subject of "did."

"Did," is an *irregular transitive* verb; *do, did, done;* has "it" for the direct object of its action. *Simple Active* form, *Indicative* mood, and *Past* tense, simply declares an act in past time. It is not varied on account of the *person* and *number* of its subject.

"It" is a personal pronoun, and has the special form of the third, singular, neuter, objective, directly limiting the transitive verb "did."

"Himself" is a compound personal pronoun, representing "John," having the special form appropriated to the third singular, mascu-

line · here used for emphasis, meaning the same person as "John," and being in the same case in apposition with it.

"He" is a personal pronoun, substituted for "John," and having the form for the third, singular, masculine, and nominative; it is the subject of the clause, having "may blame" as its grammatical predicate.

"May blame," being used to assert, is a verb; *blame*, *blamed*, *blamed*, regular; *transitive*, taking "himself" as a direct object to limit its action; *Simple Active* form; *Potential* mood, as it declares, by aid of the auxiliary "may," *permission*, *Present* tense. A verb in this mood is not varied on account of the *person* and *number* of its subject.

"Himself" is a compound personal pronoun, in the *objective* case, used reflexively as the direct object, limiting the transitive verb "may blame," and restricting its action to the object represented by "himself." "The" is an *article; definite*, and modifies "result," denoting a particular and specified result, already known.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the clausal and phrasal analysis of the following sentences, with the kinds, properties, forms, and relations of the* nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, personal pronouns, *and* compound personal pronouns, *parsing according to preceding models.*

You wronged yourself by such neglect of duty. You yourself are much condemned for avarice. The seamen threw themselves, in a mass, into the light vessel. I will be present myself, and attend to your wishes. We defended ourselves in the best way we could.

141. Adjective pronouns are substituted for nouns, or directly limit them, like adjectives.

NOTE. When used as nouns, they do not often take the article before them.

A few of them have different forms for the singular and plural; and three of them are declined like nouns, when used as such.

What are adjective pronouns?

142. This, that, these, those, former and latter, specify particular objects, and are hence called *demonstrative.*

143. Some, other, another, one, any, all, such, both, none, few, many much, several, &c., do not specify particular objects, and are hence called *indefinite.*

Remark 1. *Another* is used only in the singular; and is thus declined, namely:

Nominative, another. *Possessive*, another's. *Objective*, another.

2. *One* and *other* are used as nouns in both numbers.

Nominative,	one,	other,	*Plural.*	ones,	others,
Possessive,	one's,	other's,	"	ones',	others',
Objective,	one.	other.	"	ones.	others.

Examples. The little *ones'* home. The nest was full of little *ones.* I hear some *one's* footstep. A tear for *others'* woes. The great *ones* of the land.

144. Each, every, either, and neither, indicate separately the objects included in a whole, and are hence called *distributive.*

Remark. *Every* is never used as a noun.

145. Ours, yours, hers, theirs, mine, and thine, denote possession, and partake of the nature of adjectives; hence called *possessive.*

Remark 1. They are derived from the possessive case of the personal pronouns, our, your, her, their, my, and thy.

2. Our, your, her, their, my, and thy, denote possession because they are in the possessive case. Ours, yours, hers, theirs, mine, and thine, denote possession by virtue of the meaning of the words.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Kinds — Demonstrative, Indefinite, Distributive, Possessive.

FORM FOR PARSING AN ADJECTIVE PRONOUN.

The kind; in the relation of adjectives, parse as adjectives; in the relation of nouns, as nouns.

Which are demonstrative? Which are indefinite? What number is another? Decline other, another, and one. Which are distributive? Which possessive?

MODEL.

These books are ours, and each of them will please the little ones at home.

This compound sentence contains two independent clauses connected by "and."

"Books," the subject of the first clause, is directly modified by "these;" "ours" in the predicate denoting possession or ownership, not *assumed*, but *asserted* of "books."

"Each," representing *book*, and substituted for "each book," is the subject of the second clause, and is indirectly modified by the phrase "of them"; the predicate, "will please," is directly modified by "ones," as the *object* of its action; "ones" is directly modified by the *definite* article "the" and the descriptive adjective "little," and indirectly by the phrase "at home."

"These" is a *demonstrative adjective pronoun*, specifying and pointing out some *particular* books, obviously present to the speaker and those with him; plural form, used in the relation of an adjective, and limiting "books."

"Books" is a common noun, neuter, plural, third, nominative, the subject of the verb "are"; and, if a personal pronoun were substituted for it, it would be represented by "they," the *nominative* form.

"Are," the predicate, is a form of the irregular, intransitive verb "be," Indicative mood, Present tense, and plural form, to agree with its subject-nominative "books" in *number*.

"Ours" is a *possessive* adjective pronoun, in the predicate, directly limiting "are," and referring to the *subject*.

"Each" is a *distributive* pronoun, used in the relation of a noun, singular, *nominative*, and subject of the verb "will please."

"Them" is a *personal* pronoun, substituted for the word "books," and representing it in number and person; it has the special form appropriated to the third, plural, and objective.

"Will please," used to *assert*, is a regular, transitive verb; *please, pleased, pleased;* and has "ones" for its direct object. *Simple Active* form; Indicative mood, Future tense; it simply declares a *future* action Not varied by the person and number of its subject.

"The" is a *definite article*, pointing out particular objects, or those before specified or alluded to · here limiting "ones."

"Little" is an *adjective*, describing "ones" as to size; positive or simple form *little*, comparative *less*, superlative *least;* in the positive degree, and limits "ones."

"Ones" is an *indefinite* pronoun, used in the relation of a noun, and declined like a noun; third, plural, objective, as the direct object of "please"; as may be further made evident by substituting for it the appropriate personal pronoun "them," the special form for the *objective*.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTIONS. *With the clausal and phrasal analysis of the following sentences, give the kinds, forms, properties, and several relations, of the* nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, personal pronouns, compound personal pronouns, *and* adjective pronouns, *parsing them according to the models given.*

Matches and overmatches! Those terms are more applicable elsewhere than here, and fitter for other assemblies than this. Seldom, if ever, has a speaker in this or any other country had more powerful incentives to exertion. We wish that this structure may proclaim the magnitude and importance of that event to every class and every age. Every upper yard-arm was tipped with lightning, and each blaze was as large as that of a candle. All other graces contribute to this. The Mantuan bard still sings in every school. One of the daughters went forth to milk the cow, and another began to set out the table for supper. To this audience, gathered on that day from every part of the land, Everett spoke. The ship can make no head against this sea, under that rag of canvas.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

146. RELATIVE Pronouns are used to represent nouns and connect clauses; as, Here is the book which I wanted.

How are relative pronouns used?

REMARK 1. As the *antecedent* stands in one of the connected clauses, and its *substitute* in the other, the relative can be used only in compound sentences.

2. Thus the relative performs the office of a *noun* for which it is substituted; and of a conjunction, in joining clauses. The whole *relative clause* directly modifies the antecedent or word for which the relative is substituted, just as an *adjective* modifies a noun; and is, therefore, called an *adjective clause.*

147. The simple relatives are who, which, and that; and are thus declined, being the same in both numbers:

Nominative,	who,	which,	that,
Possessive,	whose,	whose,	
Objective,	whom.	which.	that.

NOTE. *Whose* as possessive of *which;* as, This is the question, *whose* solution I require = the solution *of which* I require.

REMARK 1. *Who* is used to represent persons; *which*, other objects; as, I knew the man *who* was rescued. Here is the sled *which* George wanted.

2. *That* is used, in place of *who* or *which*, to represent either persons or things; as, I knew the man *that* was rescued. Here is the sled *that* George wanted.

3. After the word *same*, or after an adjective in the *superlative* degree, *that* is preferable to *who* or *which;* also, after the *interrogative* "who," and after an antecedent consisting of both *persons* and *things;* as, This is the *same* person *that* we saw yesterday. Cicero was the *most finished* orator *that* Rome produced. *Who* is the person *that* saw it? Here are the *boy* and *sled* that we saw yesterday.

MODEL.

We soon found a boy who was eager to go.

This compound sentence consists of an independent clause, and the relative clause, "who was eager to go," used as an adjective modi-

---

In what sentences are relative pronouns used? What are the two functions of the relative? Decline the relatives, and tell how they are varied, and how each is used. When is *that* to be preferred?

fying "boy," in the independent clause. The *relative* clause is here restrictive, telling what kind of a boy we found.

"We," the subject of the main or leading clause, is not modified; "found," the predicate, is limited by a word showing *when* "we found," and by another word showing *what* we found. As the adjective clause modifies "boy," "soon found a boy who was eager to go" is the modified predicate of the sentence.

"Who," substituted for "boy," and representing it in person and number, is the subject of the adjective clause: and "was," the grammatical predicate, *asserts* the quality of *eagerness*, which is limited by the phrase "to go," restricting the boy's *eagerness* to this one action; "eager" is an adjective in the predicate limiting "was," and referring to its subject.

"Who" is a relative pronoun, relating to "boy" for its antecedent, and agreeing with it in number and person; consequently *third* person, *singular;* and it has the form appropriated to the nominative, being the subject of "was," and thus used in the relation of a *noun;* it also *connects* the two clauses, performing the office of a *conjunction.*

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the clausal and phrasal analysis of the following sentences; also, the kind, form, properties, and several relations of the* nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, personal pronouns, compound personal pronouns, adjective pronouns, *and* relative pronouns, *parsing them according to the models.*

I repeat it, and call on any man who hears me to take down my words. The church in which they assembled was hewn, by God's hand, out of the eternal rocks. The younger ones kept gazing down into the pool, in which the whole scene was reflected. The shepherd who had given the alarm had lain down again in his plaid. O, December, in thy constellation is set that star, whose rising is the sign, forevermore, that there is life in death! The hand that governs in April, governed in January. Boston was in her agony of grief for him, whom so lately she had borne in triumph through her streets. Of every tear that sorrowing mortals shed on such green graves, some good is born, some gentler nature comes.

148. What, whatever, whatsoever, whoever, whosoever, whosesoever, whomsoever, whichever, and whichsoever, contain both the antecedent and relative, and constitute a part of each of the two clauses they connect.

Remark 1. "What = that or those which; as, "I saw what he had"; that is, "I saw *that which* he had." "Whoever" = he who; as, "Whoever will may come"; that is, "He may come who will."

2. Pronouns thus compounded are called Compound Relative Pronouns. *What* and its compounds, also *whichever* and *whichsoever*, are sometimes used as adjective pronouns.

MODEL.

I saw in a store what will answer your purpose.

The sentence consists of two clauses, connected by the pronoun "what," which serves to make a part of each, being equivalent to *that which;* as, I saw *that which* will answer. Thus it limits the predicate of the first clause, being the direct *object* of its action, and is at the same time the *subject* of the second clause.

"I" is the subject unmodified; and "saw," the predicate, is indirectly limited by the phrase "in a store," modifying it as an adverb of place; it is also directly modified by "what," as its object. Thus, "saw in a store what will answer your purpose" is the modified predicate of the sentence.

"Will answer," the predicate of the dependent clause, is directly modified by "purpose," limiting its action to a definite object; and "purpose" is limited by "your," telling whose "*purpose.*" Thus, "will answer your purpose" is the modified predicate of the clause.

The adjective clause, "which will answer your purpose," directly modifies "that," the *antecedent* — as is apparent when "what" is resolved into two parts to show its relative situation in each clause.

"What" is a pronoun, including the *antecedent* and the *relative*, used commonly where the antecedent is *indefinite* or *general;* it is in the objective case, as the direct object of the transitive verb "saw";

Mention the pronouns that contain both antecedent and relative. To what is each equivalent? What are they called?

at the same time, as part of the subordinate clause, it is the subject nominative of the predicate "will answer."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Together with clausal and phrasal analysis, give the kind, form, properties, and relations, of all the parts of speech thus far developed, parsing them according to the given models.*

We shall be remembered in after ages by what we ourselves have done, and not by what others have done for us. Whatsoever our hands find to do, we are commanded to do diligently. Whoever wishes to understand, must give earnest attention. What the man had, was given freely. Whatever we undertake, we should thoroughly finish. What cannot be avoided, must be endured. He forgot what his father said. Whoever would gain wealth, must be industrious.

149. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, representing persons or things as objects of *inquiry*, are called INTERROGATIVE pronouns; as, Who was there? Which did you find? What does he want?

NOTE 1. *Who* is used for *persons* only; *which* and *what* for both *persons* and *things*.

2. *Whether*, meaning which of the two, is no longer used as an interrogative, though it formerly was.

REMARK. The word that answers a question should have the same regimen as the interrogative pronoun used in asking it; as, *Whose* book was lost? *John's* = John's book was lost.

MODEL.

What did John find?

A simple interrogative sentence, having its subject "John" between the auxiliary and the verb, to give it the form of a question by its arrangement.

"Did find," the predicate, is directly modified by "what", and "did find what" is the modified predicate.

What are the interrogative pronouns?

"What" is an interrogative pronoun, representing the *thing* or *things* concerning which the question is asked, in the relation of an object of the action expressed by the verb; it is, therefore, in the *objective* case.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give clausal and phrasal analysis, and parse all parts of speech for which models have been given.*

Whose book did you find in the barn? Who asked you to bring the sled? By whom was the project opposed? What does the man hope to gain by such conduct? Which course do you intend to take? Who bought the skates for you? What boy will try them?

KINDS AND PROPERTIES OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

KINDS — Simple, Compound, Interrogative.
PROPERTIES — Person, Number, and Case.

FORM FOR PARSING RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Tell the kind; antecedent; person, number; and case-relation.

ADVERBS.

150. An ADVERB is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, The boy recites *well*. He is a *remarkably* good boy. He learns *very fast*.

REMARK 1. Adverbs are generally substitutes for longer modifying expressions; as, John will return *on the next day after this day* = John will return *to-morrow*. John will return *within a short time* = John will return *shortly*, or John will *soon* return. John is *in this place at the present time* = John is *here now*. John did it *in a careful manner* = John did it *carefully*. *For the most part* = *chiefly*. *In a high degree* = *very* or *exceedingly*.

2. Modifying expressions abbreviated by ellipsis of the connect-

What is an adverb? For what are they substitutes? What are adverbial phrases?

ing word, the limiting word, or both, are *inseparable adverbial phrases;* as, in vain, in general, long ago, long time ago, not at all, at random, long since, long time since, at least, at most, by no means, at length, at the worst, of late, step by step, side by side &c. As soon as, as well as, &c., are connecting phrases, generally denoting comparison.

3. When the adjective ends in "ly," another "ly" cannot well be added; thus a phrase becomes necessary; as, *in a lively manner* instead of *livelily*.

4. Logically, adverbs may be divided into the following classes. Many subdivisions might be made, but such distinctions would be of little use etymologically, and may be disregarded in *parsing:*

5. *Time.* Now, then, when, soon, lately, hereafter, always, never, often, seldom, before, already, &c.

6. *Place.* Here, there, where, elsewhere, up, down, away, forward, below, within, whence, thither, &c.

7. *Manner.* Well, diligently, thoroughly, wisely, thus, so, easily, truly, first, secondly, thirdly, next, &c.

8. *Degree.* Much, more, most, little, less, least, very, exceedingly, almost, only, quite, too, as, even, rather, &c.

9. *Cause.* Therefore, then, consequently, why, hence, wherefore, thence, since, &c.

10. Adverbs of *time* answer the question, *When?* or *how long?* — Of *number*, the question, *How often?* or *how many times?*

11. Adverbs of *place* answer the question, *Where?* or *in what place? Whither?* or *to what place? Whence?* or *from what place?*

12. Adverbs of *manner* answer the question, *How?* or *in what way?*

13. Adverbs of *degree* answer the question, *How much?* or *to what extent?*

14. Adverbs of *cause* answer the question, *Why? wherefore? for what purpose?* or *on what account?*

15. *Now* denotes *present* time; *lately*, *past* time; *soon*, *future* time; *secondly*, *order* of time or arrangement.

16. *Yes* and *no* answer a question, and usually represent or stand for the thought contained in the question, affirming or denying it as a proposition.

17. *Amen* represents the thought contained in the preceding sentence or paragraph, reässerting it with the wish that *it may be so.*

18. *Namely*, or *to wit*, usually represented by *viz.*, embraces what follows in the sentence.

NOTE. These last four are generally used *independently*, and are not parsed as modifying particular words.

19. Some adverbs are formed by the union of two or more words: as, indeed = *in* and *deed;* wherewith = *where* and *with;* herein = *here* and *in;* whereby = *where* and *by;* sometimes = *some* and *times;* wherein = *where* and *in;* nevertheless = *never* and *the* and *less;* whereunto = *where* and *unto.*

151. Adverbs used in asking questions are called *interrogative* adverbs; as, Why? when? whither? whence? how? where? wherefore?

REMARK. *There* is often used without reference to its meaning; as, *There* is little hope of escape. *There* was a frost this morning. In such cases it is a mere *expletive*, and may be called an *introductory* adverb, used for euphony, that the verb may precede its subject smoothly. It regards the *sound* and not the *sense* of the sentence.

152. Some adverbs may be compared; as, Soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; least wisely, less wisely, wisely, more wisely, most wisely.

153. A few are compared irregularly; as, Well, better, best; ill or badly, worse, worst; much, more, most; far, farther or further, farthest or furthest.

REMARK. An adverb in the comparative or superlative degree sometimes has the article "the" preceding it; as, The oftener I see him the better I like him.

What are interrogative adverbs? How are adverbs compared? Which are compared irregularly?

NOTE. Here "the oftener" and "the better" may be parsed as *adverbial phrases*. Supplying the ellipsis will be awkward.

CONNECTIVE ADVERBS.

154. Connective adverbs connect clauses, and express the relation of time, manner, &c., that exists between them; as, "I was fond of sport when I was young." Here "when" = *at the time in which;* it denotes identity of time between the assertions in the two clauses.

REMARK 1. "When father returned, he gave me a book." Here 'when" denotes identity of time between the two actions. Therefore, "when" not only connects the two clauses, but also shows the *relation of time*.

2. The whole adverbial clause, "when father returned," modifies the predicate of the independent clause, as an adverb of *time*. So, too, in the first example, the adverbial clause is an *adverb of time*, modifying the predicate of the independent clause.

3. Thus, "where" = *the place in which;* that is, the relation it shows between two clauses connected by it is *identity of place*. "How" = *the manner in which;* before = *at a time preceding that in which;* that is, it marks *priority of time*. "After" denotes *subsequent time*, &c.

4. The adverbial clause is always dependent, and modifies the predicate of the clause with which it is connected.

KINDS AND FORMS OF ADVERBS.

KINDS — Time, place, manner, degree, cause.
PROPERTIES — Modify, connect.
FORMS — Positive, Comparative, Superlative.

FORM FOR PARSING AN ADVERB.

Kind; form; compare it; what it modifies, or connects.

MODEL.

The boy was very anxious to go where he could study more diligently.

What are connective adverbs?

The two clauses of this compound sentence are connected by the *connective adverb* "where," equivalent to *to the place in which*. It marks *identity* of *place*.

"Boy," the subject of the first clause, is limited directly by "the," and the quality expressed by "anxious" is *asserted* of "boy;" and this quality is intensified in degree by "very," which directly modifies "anxious"; the phrase "to go" limits "anxious," denoting the *purpose* or object of the boy's anxiety.

"To go" is directly modified by the clause "where he could study more diligently"; an "adverbial clause" used as an adverb *of place*.

"He," the subject of the adverbial clause, is not modified.

"Could study," the predicate, is directly modified by the phrase "more diligently."

"The" is a *definite* article, modifying "boy," and pointing out some *particular* boy known, or previously alluded to.

"Boy" is a common noun, a *name* applied to *any one* of the class; masculine, a *male;* singular, but *one;* third person, *spoken of;* nominative case, the *subject* of the clause; if represented by its appropriate personal pronoun, that form will be "he," for the third, singular, masculine, *nominative*.

"Was" is an irregular, intransitive verb, in the Indicative mood, Past tense, with a form varied to agree with a subject in the third, singular.

"Very" is an adverb, modifying the adjective "anxious."

"Anxious" is an adjective in the predicate, limiting "was," and referring to "boy."

"To go" is a verb, because it *can* be used to assert; *go*, *went*, *gone*, irregular; intransitive, does not admit a direct object: Infinitive mood, consequently not limited by number or person; used indefinitely to denote a purpose or object, and limiting "anxious."

"Where" is a *connective* adverb, uniting the adverbial clause with the independent clause, and marking identity of place.

"He" is substituted for "boy," and represents that word in gender, number, and person. It has the special form of the masculine, third, singular, nominative, and is the subject of the *adverbial* clause.

"Could study" is here used to assert, and is a *verb*. Present *study*, Past *studied* Perfect Participle *studied;* regular; either

transitive or *intransitive*, to be determined by the sense; here intransitive, used to signify an act not limited by any expressed definite *object*, but general in its sense; simple active form. Potential mood, declares, with the aid of "could," the boy's *power* or *ability* to "study more diligently." This mood is not varied for the person and number of its subject.

"More diligently" is an *adverb;* positive *diligently*, comparative *more diligently*, superlative *most diligently;* comparative degree, and modifies "could study," whereby it is asserted that the "boy" could perform the act in a higher degree *there* than elsewhere.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the following sentences, giving the clausal and phrasal analysis; also, the* kinds, forms, properties, *and modifying relations, of the* nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, pronouns, *and* adverbs, *according to previous models; and, in parsing* connective *adverbs, show the* relation *they mark between the* actions *of the connected clauses.*

The man worked slowly and diligently. John recited exceedingly well. He eats more carefully now. John arrived before the ship sailed. They managed their affairs most prudently. The ship sailed after John came. He walked very slowly. The ship will sail when John comes. The speaker was quite earnest in his manner. When John arrives, the ship will sail. The man was very eager to go. When John arrived, the ship sailed. The sooner he goes, the better. The ship sailed as soon as John arrived. He will find it where he left it. He may go whither he pleases. The horse stood still while we were getting into the wagon. John drove too fast for safety. He rode much too rapidly.

PREPOSITIONS.

155. PREPOSITIONS are used to connect words, and show the relation between them; as, Charles went *from* New York *to* Baltimore. Wealthy men should give liberally = Men *of* wealth should give *with* liberality.

NOTE. A noun or pronoun indirectly modifies another word, by means of the connecting preposition expressed or implied, and the case-relation of the modifying word is thus shown to be *objective*.

REMARK. The preposition is used chiefly before nouns and their substitutes, connecting them with the words to which they stand in the relation of modifiers, as *adjectives* or *adverbs;* as, Men *of wealth* should give *with liberality*. Here the phrases, "of wealth" = *wealthy*, and "with liberality" = *liberally;* this performing the office of an adverb, — that, of an adjective.

NOTE. Generally, when phrases beginning with prepositions limit verbs, they are adverbial; when they limit nouns, they are adjective phrases.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

156. Abroad, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, at, athwart, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, but, by, concerning, down, during, except, excepting, for, from, in, into, notwithstanding, of, off on, over, past, regarding, respecting, round, save, since, through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward, towards, under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon, with, within, without.

REMARK 1. The above words are generally used as prepositions, and take after them the objective case of a noun or pronoun, used as a modifying term; but, when they are used without the modifying term of relation, they are commonly parsed as *adverbs*.

2. *But*, meaning *except*, is a *preposition;* meaning *only*, it is an *adverb;* otherwise used, it is a *conjunction*.

3. *Save* and *except* may be parsed as verbs, but are generally regarded as prepositions.

4. Concerning, excepting, regarding, and touching, have ceased to be considered as participles, being classed as prepositions merely.

5. The adverb *out*, and the preposition *of*, used together, form what may be called a *compound preposition*. So, also, the participle *according* and *to;* over against, from above, from beneath, from beyond, from between, from off, from within, from without, &c., may be classed thus. But all *may* be separated in construction, by supplying an ellipsis.

For what are prepositions used? What case do prepositions take after them?

6. *Like*, *nigh*, *near*, and *opposite*, are, by some, parsed as prepositions.

MODEL.

John sailed from New York to London in a ship.

"John" is the unmodified subject of this simple sentence "Sailed," the predicate, has connected with it three phrases modifying it.

The first phrase, "from New York," = an *adverb of place;* the second, "to London," = an *adverb of place;* the third, "in a ship," = an *adverb of manner*. Thus the three phrases, two as adverbs of *place*, and one of *manner*, modify the predicate "sailed," making "sailed from New York to London in a ship" the modified predicate.

"From" is a preposition, connecting "New York," the modifying term, with "sailed," the other term of the relation.

"To" is a preposition, connecting "London," the modifying term, with "sailed."

"In" is a preposition, connecting "ship" with "sailed."

"New York" is a proper noun, neuter, third, singular; in the *objective*, because the modifying term always stands in that case-relation to the modifying word; objective after the preposition "from."

"London" is a proper noun; neuter, singular, third; objective after the preposition "to."

"A" is an indefinite article, limiting "ship."

"Ship" is a common noun, third, singular, neuter; objective after the preposition "in."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the clausal and phrasal relations of the following sentences; the kinds, forms, properties, and modifying relations, of the several* nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, pronouns, adverbs, *and* prepositions, *according to foregoing models*

Mahomet still lives in his practical and disastrous influence in the East. The sun sets beyond the western hills, but the trail of light behind him guides the pilgrim to his distant home. Beauty haunts the depths of the earth and sea, and gleams out

in the hues of the shell and the precious stone. An infinite joy is lost to the world by the want of culture of this spiritual endowment. Every husbandman is living in sight of the works of a divine artist. From the diffusion of the sense of beauty in ancient Greece, and of the taste for music in modern Germany, we learn that the people at large may partake of refined gratifications.

CONJUNCTIONS.

157. CONJUNCTIONS connect words, phrases, clauses, and sentences; as, William went to Baltimore *and* Washington. They can go by land *or* by water. John went to New York, *but* Charles remained at home.

NOTE 1. The conjunction "and" sometimes connects *words* alone; as, *two* and *three* are five. Here the quality or fact in the predicate, asserted of the *compound subject*, is not true of either part alone. Such cases are rare.

2. "John and James are good boys." This is separable; as, "John is a good boy, and James is a good boy." So that *here*, as in almost every instance, by supplying the ellipsis, the conjunction may be made to connect *clauses;* and this is its *peculiar function*.

REMARK 1. Conjunctions form no part of the *phrases*, *clauses*, or *sentences*, which they connect.

2. Conjunctions connect *words* of the same class, in the same relation; similar *phrases*, in like relations; and like or unlike clauses, in the same or different relations.

3. Words and phrases connected by conjunctions have a common dependence.

4. Conjunctions, for the most part, connect clauses only; a few connect also phrases, and sometimes words.

5. "That," as a conjunction, stands only in a substantive clause; and, whether the clause is subjective or objective, is often a mere expletive.

6. Some words are used merely to introduce conjunctions; so far as they serve to direct attention, they are emphatic; but, as they do

---

What do conjunctions connect? What is the peculiar function of the conjunction?

not connect, they would otherwise be expletive. They are really *introductory*, and are usually called corresponding conjunctions or correlatives.

NOTE 1. Thus, *or* may be preceded by *whether* or *either*, *nor* by *neither*, *yet* or *still* by *although* or *though*, &c. But most of the words usually considered as corresponding conjunctions are clearly referable to some other construction and regimen. Thus, *both* is never a conjunction, though *set down* as such, corresponding with *and*.

2. A *corresponding* conjunction never *connects*, and it may be parsed merely as *introductory* to the real conjunction that performs the connecting office, and is the consequent in the correlation.

7. *And*, and the conjunctive phrase *as well as*, express *addition*, and connect independent clauses, phrases having a common dependence, and words of the same class in the same relation.

8. *Or*, denoting alternative, *nor* and *neither* negative, also connect independent clauses; though *neither* is often introductory, correlative with *nor*.

9. *But*, *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, *still*, *yet*, denoting opposition, contrast, or concession, also connect independent clauses.

10. *If*, *although*, *though*, *except*, *lest* and *unless*, connect dependent or subordinate clauses with those on which they depend. When a clause thus dependent is connected with another by one of these conjunctions, its predicate is said to be in the *Subjunctive* mood. They denote condition, doubt, supposition.

11. *For* and *because* precede a reason; *therefore* and *wherefore*, an inference; *since*, *that*, &c., a cause or result; and are either *causal* or *illative* conjunctions.

12 *Than* and *as* denote comparison; *than* follows comparatives, the words *other*, *as*, &c., positives.

MODEL.

If we fail, it can be no worse for us; but we shall not fail.

There are two members to this compound sentence; one independent, stating a fact based on a supposition, or rather making an asser-

tion under a *condition* expressed in a subjoined clause; the other denying the condition supposed in the former member for the sake of argument.

The dependent clause, "we fail," is connected with the independent clause, "it can be no worse for us," by "if," which always connects the subordinate clause in which it stands with some other.

The other independent proposition, "we shall not fail," is connected with the first member of the sentence by "but," expressing *contrast* or *opposition*.

"We," representing the speaker and those with him, is the subject, unmodified, of the subjunctive clause, and "fail" is the unmodified predicate.

"It," representing the *supposition* contained in the subjoined clause, is the subject of the leading clause; "can be," the predicate, is limited by "worse," an adjective in the predicate, whereby its quality is asserted of the subject; and "worse" is directly modified by the adverb "no," and indirectly by the phrase "for us."

"We" is the subject of the last independent clause, and "shall fail" is the predicate, modified by "not," giving it a negative meaning.

"If" is a conjunction, used only to connect a subjunctive clause to some other; thus, "fail," the predicate of this clause, is said to be in the *Subjunctive* mood.

"Can be" is here used, by means of the auxiliary "can," to declare *possibility* or *power* of its subject.

"Shall fail" is a simple declaration in the future, negatived by the adverb "not."

"But" is a conjunction, used only with clauses, and here connecting the two independent or coördinate clauses.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION *Give the clausal and phrasal analysis of the sentences, and the forms, properties and relations, of all the parts of speech for which models in parsing have been given.*

As he makes the final gash, the faithful knife falls from his little, nerveless hand. The schoolmaster made her no answer, but bent over her in silence, for his heart was full. As the grandfather approached, the church clock struck the hour of

school, and their friend withdrew. We die, but leave an influence behind us. Each one of these monuments has been watered by the tears of the widow, the orphan, or the patriot. Generations have passed away, and mourners and mourned have sunk together in forgetfulness. Many such miracles are set before us; but we recognize them not, or pass them by with a word or a smile of short surprise. The aged sat down; but they wept not. If they had the vices of savage life, they had the virtues also. If we postpone independence, do we mean to carry on, or to give up, the war? The tree falls in the forest; but, in the lapse of ages, it is turned into coal, and our fires burn now the brighter because it grew and fell.

INTERJECTIONS.

158. An INTERJECTION is a word used to express sudden or violent feeling, emotion, or passion; as, Ha! it is Pythias.

REMARK 1. The interjection is an undeveloped sentence; as, O! that I had the wings of a dove = *I wish* that I had the wings of a dove.

NOTE. Many interjections are merely verbs in the Imperative mood; as, hark! behold! hush!

2. The following classification is merely logical, indicating the interjections appropriated to express a particular emotion, and not to be regarded in *parsing*.

3. Expressive of *grief* — alas, alack, oh, woe, ah, well-a-day. Of *pain* — oh, oh dear, ah. Of *joy* — huzza, hurrah. Of *laughter* — ha, ha, ha. Of *contempt* — pshaw, fudge, poh, tut-tut. Of *dislike* — fie, foh. Of *repulsion* — avaunt, off, begone. Of *welcome* — hail, all-hail. Of *surprise* — ha, hah, what, oh. Of *wonder* — ha, strange. Used in *calling* — ho, hallo, what ho, avast, hem. In *silencing* — hush, hist, mum, hark. In *directing sight* — see, look, lo, behold. In *intensifying* or *desiring* — O.

4. The interjection has generally no grammatical connection with other words, that requires to be regarded in *parsing*. It may be *parsed* as grammatically independent, and its logical relation is always sufficiently apparent.

MODEL.

O! that I had the wings of a dove.

This sentence consists of an undeveloped and an objective clause, connected by the conjunction "that."

The undeveloped clause is the interjection "O," which is equivalent to "I wish." The objective clause is the direct object of the implied predicate of the undeveloped clause.

"I" is the subject of the dependent clause, "had" is the predicate, and "had the wings of a dove" is the modified predicate

"Had" is directly modified by "wings," as its object limiting its action; and "wings" is modified by the article "the," and indirectly by the phrase "of a dove," which, being descriptive, is here an adjective.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the clausal and phrasal analysis of the following sentences, and parse* all *the parts of speech according to the given models.*

Hurrah! the foe is moving! "Ha! Bernard," quoth Alphonso. Why, zounds! they shut the gates at ten. O, may he never more be warm! Hail, holy light! O, save me, Hubert, save me! Whew! whew! what a fuss about nothing. O! for a lodge in some vast wilderness! Alas! I, then, have chid away my friend. Hark! a shout falls on his ear from above.

INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX.

As there is a syntax of words, treating of their offices and relations, as arranged in sentences, so there is a syntax of clauses and phrases.

A perfect system of analysis must recognize *verbal*, *phrasal* and *clausal* syntax.

Now, these several kinds of syntax are not always distinct; nor is an analysis founded on either of them alone, complete. What is commonly called parsing, that is, verbal analysis, is often defective, or impossible, if not combined with phrasal and clausal analysis.

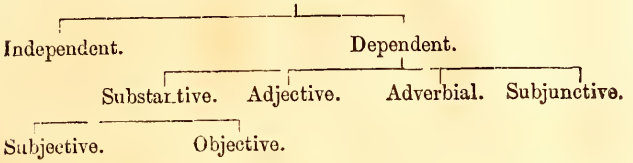
Look, for example, at the following sentence: "A gentle dalesman lies almost at the root of that tall pine." Technical parsing takes no notice of the fact that "at the root" is an *adverb*, modifying "lies," or that "of that tall pine" is an *adjective*, modifying "root."

In this respect it is defective, and, in consequence of this defect, it fails, also, in its own sphere, and is obliged to violate its own rules by parsing "almost" as modifying a preposition. "Almost" cannot be parsed consistently with the definitions and rules of grammar, without recognizing the adverbial power of the phrase "at the root."

The question, therefore, of the relative importance of parsing and analysis, which some have raised, cannot be entertained; since each is necessary to the other, and both to the completeness of the analysis. Besides, some of the rules of syntax — to be applied in parsing — presuppose analysis; and others can be vindicated only by recognizing the principles of phrasal and clausal analysis.

In resolving a sentence into its elements, the order, so far as possible, should be from the general to the particular; that is, from clausal through phrasal, to verbal.

In our division of clauses, we purposely abstain from all distinctions except such as are *grammatical*. It is sufficient for the purposes of analysis, to recognize the following distinctions, namely:



159. Every sentence contains, at least, one independent clause.

160. A *substantive* clause is the grammatical equivalent of a noun: as, Know, then, this truth, "*Virtue alone is happiness below.*" Know what truth? "Virtue alone is happiness below." So the *substantive clause* is in apposition with "truth."

161. A *subjective* clause is equivalent to a noun in the nominative case; as, *That you have wronged me* doth appear in this. A *fact* doth appear. What *fact?* "That you have wronged me." *Who he was* is not known.

162. An *objective* clause is equivalent to a noun in the objective case; as, The farmer declared *that his watch had gained half an hour in the night.* Declared a fact. What fact? "That his watch had gained half an hour in the night." "I know *who saw him.*"

163. An *adjective* clause is equivalent to an adjective; as, The man *who is wealthy*, should give liberally = the man *of wealth* = the *wealthy* man.

164. An *adverbial* clause is equivalent to an adverb; as, *When he came down to breakfast*, the farmer declared that his watch had gained half an hour in the night. The farmer declared *then.* When did he declare? "When he came down to breakfast."

165. A *subjunctive* clause has its predicate in the Subjunctive mood; as, *If he come*, I shall see him.

166. A PHRASE may perform the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

167. A phrase which performs the office of a noun, may be called a *substantive* phrase. *His being lame* prevented *his going* = *Lameness* prevented his *departure*. *His being lame* freed him from military duty.

168. A *subjective* phrase is equivalent to a noun in the nominative case; as, *To see the sun* is pleasant = *Seeing* (the sun) is pleasant = *The sight* (of the sun) is pleasant. What is pleasant? "To see the sun." "Liberty or Death," was the cry. "A Home, A Gordon," was the cry.

169. An *objective* phrase is equivalent to a noun in the objective case; as, I know *how to do it*. I know the *way* or *manner*. His being lame prevented his *going away* = *departure*.

170. An *adjective* phrase is equivalent to an adjective; as, He was a man *of wealth* = He was a *wealthy* man.

171. An *adverbial* phrase is equivalent to an adverb; as, He came *to this place* = He came *here*.

NOTE. A phrase, used as a conjunction, a preposition, a verb, and, in some cases, as an adverb, is inseparable.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS,

CLAUSAL, PHRASAL, AND VERBAL.

"When the farmer came down to breakfast, he declared that his watch had gained half an hour in the night."

This is a compound sentence, consisting of three clauses. "He declared" is an *independent* clause; "that his watch had gained half an hour in the night," *objective;* and "When the farmer came down to breakfast," *adverbial*.

The objective clause is connected with the independent clause by the conjunction "that."

The adverbial clause is connected with the independent clause by the connective adverb "when."

The *adverbial* phrase "to breakfast" limits "came." The *adjective* phrase "of an hour" (the ellipsis being supplied) limits

"half." The *adverbial* phrase "in the night" limits "had gained."

The subject of the independent clause, "he," is a personal pronoun, used instead of the noun "farmer." Its form shows it to be of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and in the nominative case, to agree in these respects with the word it represents. The regular, transitive verb "declared" is the predicate; it is in the indicative mood, past tense; singular number, and third person, to agree with the subject "he."

"Declared" is directly limited by the adverbial clause, and by the objective clause, which is its direct object.

"Farmer," the subject of the adverbial clause, is a common noun, of the masculine gender, singular number, third person, and in the nominative case. It is directly limited by the definite article "the."

"Came," the predicate, is an irregular, intransitive verb; indicative mood, past tense; third person, singular, to agree with the subject "farmer." It is directly limited by the adverb "down."

The connective adverb "when" marks the relation of the two predicates "declared" and "came" in regard to time.

"Breakfast" is a common noun, of the neuter gender, singular number, third person, and objective case after the preposition "to," which connects it with "came."

"Watch," the subject of the objective clause, is a common noun, of the neuter gender, singular number, third person, and in the nominative case. It is directly limited by the personal pronoun "his," referring to "farmer," with which it agrees in gender, number, and person. "His" is in the possessive case.

The predicate "had gained" is a regular, transitive verb; indicative, past perfect; third, singular, agreeing in these two latter respects with "watch." The predicate is directly limited by the common noun "half," which is of the third, singular, objective.

"An" is an indefinite article, limiting "hour."

"Hour" is a common noun, neuter, third, singular, and objective after the preposition "of" implied.

"Night" is a common noun, neuter, third, singular, and objective after the preposition "in," by which it is connected with "had gained." It is directly limited by the definite article "the."

The subject of this sentence is not modified. The modified predicate is "declared," with its modifications, by the adverbial and objective clauses.

"William goes to school."

This is a simple sentence. "William" is the grammatical subject, and is not modified. "Goes" is the grammatical predicate, and is modified by the adverbial phrase "to school." "Goes to school" is the modified predicate.

"William" is a proper noun, masculine, singular, third, nominative.

"Goes" is an irregular, intransitive verb, active voice, indicative, present, third, singular.

"School" is a common noun, neuter, third, singular, and objective after the preposition "to," by which it is connected with "goes."

"John walks and runs."

This sentence has a compound predicate. "John," the grammatical subject, is not modified. "Walks" and "runs" are connected by "and," neither of them being modified.

"John" is a proper noun, masculine, third, singular, nominative.

"Walks" is a regular, intransitive verb, in the indicative, present, third, singular; agreeing in the two latter respects with its subject "John."

"Runs" is parsed in the same manner as "walks," except that it is irregular.

SIMPLE RULES OF SYNTAX.

Rule I.

The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case; as, The *boy* studies. *He* will learn.

Note. A verb is *finite* when it is limited by number and person.

MODEL.

The *boy* studies, and *he* will learn.

This sentence is compound, consisting of two propositions. Each assertion may stand alone, and make complete sense by itself. Otherwise connected, the latter clause might be a *consequent* of the former; as, The boy studies; *therefore* he will learn. Or, The boy will learn, *because* he studies.

The *conjunction* "and," connecting the two clauses as independent propositions, merely expresses *addition*.

"Boy," the grammatical subject of the first clause, is limited by the definite article "the," denoting some particular boy before the eye or the mind, and thus made sufficiently obvious to the hearer or reader. Hence "the boy" is the *modified* subject.

"Studies" is the predicate of the first clause, and "will learn" of the second. As neither predicate is modified, the assertion in each clause is unlimited and general. "He," the subject of the second clause, represents "boy," and is not modified.

"Boy" is a *noun*, because it is the *name* of an object; a *common* noun, because it is the name of *any one* of a class; of the *masculine gender*, because it denotes a *male* being; of the *singular number*, because it denotes *only one;* of the *third person*, because it represents the object named as *spoken of;* in the *nominative case*, because it is the *subject* of the finite verb "studies," here used to assert something of the person denoted by the word "boy."

"He" is a *pronoun*, because it is substituted for a noun; *personal*, because its form shows of what person it is; it has the form appropriated to the masculine gender, singular number, and third person of the personal pronouns, because it must agree in these respects with the noun "boy," which it represents; it has also the form appropriated to the nominative case of the personal

pronoun, because it is the grammatical subject of the verb "will learn," which asserts something of it.

GENERAL DIRECTION. *In all the Exercises under each* RULE, *analyze the several sentences, according to the* MODEL, *giving both clausal and phrasal analysis; but parse those words* only *that come under the* given *rule. It will be well for the pupil to write out in full on slate or paper the* analysis *and* parsing *of these exercises, and frequently on the blackboard, citing any* RULES *that will apply. Also, write five sentences under each rule, pointing out the word or words to which the rule applies.*

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *If the subjects of the following exercises are* nouns, *tell everything that can be said of the* noun, *with reasons for the particular application; if* pro nouns, *for what they are substitutes, in what respects they represent the substitutes, whatever else pertains to their particular regimen, and reasons for all.*

The wreck had evidently drifted about for some months. Benevolence confers the highest enjoyment. Father has not returned, nor will he be at home for a fortnight. Ellen loves her book, and she will excel in her studies. Anna loves her book, because she can read it. Charles has not had the knife, nor has he seen it to-day. The language is good, and Trim reads very well. The boy will learn, if he studies faithfully. The man was confident that he had done nothing wrong. We must persevere in well doing, and then we shall not fail. If you act uprightly, conscience will approve. You will have abundant time for study, if you rise early in the morning. The trees were in blossom, and the air was filled with fragrant perfumes. Vegetation is constantly advancing, though no eye can trace its steps.

RULE II.

A verb agrees with its subject-nominative in number and person; as, I *am*. He *was loved*. Boys *play*.

MODEL.

I *am* glad that the teacher *is respected* by his pupils.

Here are two propositions, each asserting a distinct fact, and yet so connected by the clausal conjunction "that," showing the relation of cause and effect between them, as to make the former assertion a consequent on the fact stated in the latter; that is, a result of the cause specified in that proposition.

Of these clauses "I" and "teacher" are the subjects; "am" and "is respected" the predicates. "Glad" an adjective in the predicate refers to the subject "I"; and thus the quality of gladness is not *assumed* of the subject, but is *asserted* of it.

"The" is a definite article, limiting "teacher" to some particular one before the mind or eye; and "the teacher" is the modified subject.

"Is respected," the predicate, is limited by the phrase "by his pupils"; and "is respected by his pupils" is the modified predicate.

"Pupils" is limited by the pronoun "his," representing "teacher."

The predicate "is respected" would be here used in a *general* and *indefinite* manner, unless restricted by the phrase "by his pupils." This phrase modifies the *general* meaning, and limits to a definite class the *respect* shown to the teacher.

"Am" is a verb, because it is used to assert. *Principal parts*, Present "be" or "am," Past "was," Perfect Participle "been"; *irregular*, because its past tense and perfect participle are not formed by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present or simple form; *intransitive*, because it does not take a word after it in the objective case, as the direct object of the verb; *Indicative mood*, because it simply declares; *Present tense*, because it represents the being as incomplete and asserted in *present time;* this verb alone has a special form appropriated to the singular number and first person, and it agrees in those respects with its subject-nominative "I."

"Is respected" is a *verb*, because it may be used to *assert;* and it is so used here. Present "respect," Past "respected," Perfect Participle "respected"; *regular*, because its past tense and perfect participle are formed by the addition of *ed* to the present or simple form; *transitive*, because it can take a noun after it in the objective case as the direct object of its action; as, "His pupils respected the *teacher*"; *passive*, because it is formed by annexing the perfect participle "respected" to "is," a part of the verb "be," and because

the direct object of the verb is here made its subject; *Indicative mood*, because it simply declares; *Present tense*, because it represents an *unfinished* action as *going on* in *present time;* it has the form appropriated to the singular number and third person, to agree in these respects with its subject-nominative "teacher."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the causal and phrasal analysis of the following sentences, parsing only the* verbs.

If thine enemy hunger, give him bread. The rocks crumble; the trees fall; the leaves fade; and the grass withers. Generations have passed away, and mourners and mourned have sunk together into forgetfulness. The wind was blowing a smacking breeze, and we were going at a great rate through the water.

Father, thy hand
Hath reared these venerable columns; thou
Didst weave this verdant roof.

The name of the ship could not be ascertained. The wreck had evidently drifted about for some months. A word once uttered can never be recalled. We should cultivate a taste for the beautiful. His mind has not been cultivated, or else his genius has been bent out of its proper channel. The mind of the savage has never been disciplined by study; therefore, it is distinguished only for strength and ferocity.

RULE III.

Adjectives directly limit nouns and their substitutes; as, *Good* men. *Seven* men. They are *happy*.

MODEL.

The farmer lost his *best* horse and *three* cows.

Here "farmer" is the subject; and "lost," the predicate, is directly modified by the objective phrases "his best horse" and "three cows." The modified predicate is "lost his best horse and three cows."

"Horse" is limited in quality by the word "best," and the word "cows" is limited in number by "three." "And" connects the

phrase "three cows" to the phrase "his best horse," as they have a common dependence, being direct objects of the transitive verb "lost."

This may be further seen by supplying the ellipsis and making two clauses; as, "The farmer lost his best horse, and the farmer lost three cows." Thus the two connected phrases have a common dependence or relation.

"Best" is an adjective; positive *good*, comparative *better*, superlative *best; irregularly* compared, is in the superlative degree, because it expresses the highest degree of goodness compared with his other horses, and modifies "horse," restricting in quality, and excluding all his other horses.

"Three" is an adjective; *numeral*, because it denotes number; *cardinal*, denotes how many; and limits the noun "cows" in number, but in no other respect. Numerals cannot be compared

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *After clausal and phrasal analysis of each sentence, parse the several* adjectives *in each.*

The calm shade shall bring a kindred calm, and the soft breeze shall waft a balm to thy sick heart. He had a good mind, a sound judgment, a vivid imagination; and yet he was not a genius. The first and great object of education is mental discipline. It was now the hottest time of persecution, and secret places were sought for the worship of God. A rapid torrent rolled its way through a chasm of cliffs several hundred feet high. The soldiers dashed down a less precipitous part of the banks, and with more rapid strides they hurried up the channel. In the most energetic and high-wrought things Webster ever uttered, there was a quiet tone of moderation.

RULE IV.

The article A or AN limits nouns in the singular number only; as, *A* man, *an* hour.

The article THE limits nouns in either number; as, *The* man, *the* men.

MODEL.

The man hired *a* carriage, and we rode for *an* hour.

Two independent clauses, connected by "and," making a compound sentence.

"Man" and "we" are the subjects, and "hired" and "rode" the grammatical predicates.

"Hired" is limited by "carriage," as the direct object of its action, and "hired a carriage" is therefore the modified predicate.

"Rode" is indirectly modified by the phrase "for an hour," limiting the action as to *time;* and "rode for an hour" is the modified predicate.

"The" is a *definite* article, and limits the noun "man" to some particular man, before spoken of or pointed out.

"A" is an *indefinite* article, and limits the noun "carriage" indefinitely, without specifying any particular carriage.

"An" is an *indefinite* article, and limits the noun "hour" to one, but indefinitely to any one. "An" is used instead of *a*, because it comes before a vowel sound; as *h* is silent.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Point out the following sentences, the clauses and phrases and their relations, and parse the* articles.

I once saw a boy, on a public occasion, climbing the lightning-rod on the lofty spire of a meeting-house. Beauty is an all-pervading presence. The ocean, the mountains, the clouds, the heavens, the stars, the rising and setting sun, all overflow with beauty. A mighty army, flushed with victory, is approaching the walls; a victorious chieftain is leading them forward; an unknown and mysterious God is marching before them. The heavens and the earth had a beginning, and they will have an end. The night was shutting in about the house, and there was a melancholy, gusty sound in the trees.

RULE V.

Adverbs directly modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs; as, A *very* good man will *not always* act *very prudently.*

MODEL.

The boy recites *exceedingly well*, because he has acquired *very* studious habits.

These two clauses are placed in the relation to each other of cause and effect; the last clause assigning a reason for the fact asserted in the first.

They are connected by the *causal* conjunction *because;* this conjunction generally follows the effect and precedes the cause, and connects clauses only.

"Boy" is the subject of one clause, and "he," of the other. "Recites" is the grammatical predicate of one, and "has acquired," of the other.

"Recites exceedingly well" is the modified predicate of the first, and "has acquired very studious habits" is the modified predicate of the last.

"The" limits "boy" to a *definite* individual, and "the boy" is the modified subject. "Very studious habits" is a phrase, directly modifying "acquired."

"Exceedingly" is an *adverb*, and modifies the adverb "well," increasing its force, showing *how* "well." Thus, if the question be asked, *how* well did the boy recite? the answer would be "*exceedingly* well."

Well is an *adverb*, *irregularly* compared; *well*, *better*, *best;* in the positive form, but increased in degree by the adverb "exceedingly," which modifies it.

"Well" modifies the verb "recites," showing the *manner* in which "the boy recites."

"Very" is an adverb, and modifies the adjective "studious," increasing it in degree.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze clauses and phrases, and parse the* adverbs.

Leaning back in his carriage, he was carried along, hardly sensible that it was day. Arthur's mother was peculiarly dear to him, in having a character so very much like his own. Almost

his first words showed his anxiety for his companions in misfortune. Charles was quite unwilling to try, but he has written his copy very well indeed. John's task was accomplished the soonest, and the most successfully. The greatest forces of the earth all act noiselessly and irresistibly. We are fearfully and wonderfully made. A tall Gothic church-spire shot up lightly from among the yew-trees, with rooks and crows generally wheeling about it. The court-yard was now totally empty, but Waverley still stood there, with his eyes fixed upon the dark pass where he had so lately seen the last glimpse of his friend.

Rule VI.

Prepositions require the objective case after them; as, John gave the book to *me*.

Note 1. The modifying term of a relation shown by a preposition is in the objective case; as, George went *to* Jerusalem. It was sent *to him by me*.

2. A noun or pronoun connected with another word by a preposition indirectly modifies it, constituting with the preposition a phrase.

MODEL.

John sent the book by *me*, and I shall deliver it for *him* soon.

"John" and "I" are the subjects; "sent" and "shall deliver,' the predicates.

"Sent" is modified directly by the *object* "book," and indirectly by the phrase "by me"; so that "sent the book by me" is the modified predicate of the first clause.

"Shall deliver" is directly limited by "it" as the object of its action; also by "soon," showing the *nearness* of the time of the future action predicated of the subject "I." It is indirectly limited by the phrase "for him."

"Me" is a *personal* pronoun, having a peculiar form to express the *person* it represents. First person, as it stands for the *speaker*. It is never varied in form on account of gender, as the first person is presumed to be present, and the sex known. Singular, denoting but

one, as it must be of the same number as the noun for which it stands. It has the special form for the objective case, and indirectly modifies "sent," with which it is connected by the preposition "by," showing the relation between "me," the modifying term, and the word "sent."

"Him" is a pronoun, and represents "John"; *personal*, because it has an appropriate form to represent the *person* of the noun for which it stands; it has the form of the third person, singular number, and masculine gender, because "John," its antecedent, is masculine, singular, third; the special form for the objective case, and is connected with "shall deliver," which it indirectly modifies, by the preposition "for," requiring the case-relation to be objective.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse only the* nouns *and* pronouns *that indirectly modify words by prepositional relations.*

By the approval of evil, we become guilty of it. Faith touches all things with the hues of heaven. They have gone down amidst the roar of the tempest. From thicket to thicket the angler glides. The storm-bird wheels in circles round the mast. They thronged around her magic cell. The plover with snowy wings skims over the deep. One of the surest signs of the regeneration of society will be the elevation of the art of teaching to the highest rank in the community. Of old hast thou laid the foundations of the earth, and the heavens are the work of thy hands. Leaning back in his carriage, with his hand over his eyes, he was carried along, hardly sensible that it was day. She covered her eyes with her hand, and the tears trickled down between her pale, thin fingers.

RULE VII.

The direct object of a transitive verb is in the objective case; as, I found *them*. We saw *him*. Men worship *God*.

MODEL.

Father called *us*, and we obeyed *him*.

Here are two independent clauses, each containing a distinct proposition, connected by the conjunction "and."

"Father" and "we" are the subjects unmodified; "called" and "obeyed," the grammatical predicates.

"Called" is directly limited by "us" as the object of its action, restricting the "call" to the persons represented by the pronoun "us"; and "called us" is the modified predicate.

"Obeyed" is directly limited by "him" as the object of its action, thus restricting *our* obedience to one person, represented by "him"; and "obeyed him" is the modified predicate.

"Us" is a personal pronoun, representing as *a company* the speaker and those with him at the time of the call, and therefore of the first person; not varied to represent *sex*,—the persons, denoted by the word for which it is substituted, may be males or females without affecting its form; plural, more than *one*. It has the special form appropriated to the objective case, as the object directly limiting the action of the transitive verb "called."

"Him" is a personal pronoun, substituted for the *noun* "father," and representing it in number, person, and gender, being in form, *third*, *singular*, *masculine*. It has the special form appropriated to the *objective* case, and directly limits the transitive verb "obeyed."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the sentences, and parse the words that* directly limit transitive verbs.

The calls of business, and the press of occupation, will not suffer me to give much time to social enjoyments. If they had the vices of savage life, they had the virtues also. If they forgave not injury, neither did they forget kindness. I have shown him only as I saw him at first. Mahomet forced the Koran upon the eastern world, and the sons of Ishmael unfurled the crescent, and waged an exterminating warfare against the disciples of the cross. I held the fruit near my eyes; I examined its form and its colors. A delicious odor allured me to bring it near my lips, and I inhaled long draughts of its perfumes.

Rule VIII.

A noun, varied to denote the owner or possessor, directly limiting another, is in the possessive case; as, *John's* book. *Our* sled. Virtue has *its* reward.

MODEL.

The *boy's* book was found, but *its* leaves had been sadly torn.

This sentence contains two propositions, connected by the conjunction "but," expressing *contrast* between the present condition of the book and its former appearance.

"Book" is the grammatical subject of the first clause, and "leaves" of the other.

"Book" is directly limited by "boy's," denoting the owner, and "boy's" by "the," denoting a "definite" boy; and "the boy's book" is the modified subject.

"Leaves" is directly limited by "its," denoting the possessor; as, the "book's leaves"; therefore "its leaves" is the modified subject.

"Was found" is the predicate of the first clause, and is not modified.

"Had been torn," the predicate of the second clause, is directly modified by "sadly," describing the manner of the action; thus, "had been sadly torn" is the modified predicate.

"Boy's" is a *noun*, because it is a name; *common*, because it applies to any one of a class; *masculine gender*, denoting a male being; *singular*, denoting only one; *third person*, spoken of; in the form appropriated to the *possessive case*, denoting ownership, and directly limiting the noun "book," the name of the object possessed.

"Its" is a *personal pronoun*, and has the form appropriated to the third person, singular, masculine, to agree in these respects with "book," the noun for which it is substituted; it has the special form assigned to this pronoun in the *possessive case*, denotes possession, and directly limits "leaves," the name of the object possessed.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze as usual, but parse only words in the* possessive *case.*

The sick earth groans with man's iniquities. Faith's raised eye looks far beyond life's narrow bound. Time writes no wrinkles on thine azure brow. All the ends of thy aim should be thy country's, thy God's, and truth's. Alas! the lieutenant's last day's march is over. My morning's ride was to the site of the Indian town Powhatan, the metropolis of the dominions of Pocahontas' father.

O, loveliest there the spring days come,
With blossoms, and birds, and wild bees' hum.

Dryden's page is a natural field; Pope's is a velvet lawn. The sound of wheels and horses' feet was now heard in the court-yard of the castle.

RULE IX.

Intransitive and passive verbs have the same case after as before them, when both words denote the same object; as, *He* was named *John*. *I* am *he*. *Thou* art the *man*. I know *him* to be an honest *man*.

MODEL.

Washington is called the *father* of his country.

This is a simple sentence. "Washington" is the subject; "is called," the grammatical predicate, and "is called the father of his country," the modified predicate.

"Father" is limited by "the," and indirectly by the phrase "of his country"; and "country" is directly limited by "his."

"Is called" is a passive verb, and "Washington," its subject, is in the nominative case; therefore, "father," denoting the same person as "Washington," is in the nominative case after the verb.

"Father" is a *common* noun, applied to any one of a class; *masculine*, a *male being; third* person, *spoken of; singular*, but *one; nom-*

inative case, because it is a noun in the predicate denoting the same person as the subject, and therefore must be in the same case; nominative after the passive verb "is called"; "Washington" being the subject-nominative, and "father" the predicate-nominative.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse only words in the predicate having the same meaning as the subject.*

Each day is a new life. Beauty is the flower, but virtue is the fruit of life. Knowledge is the treasure of the mind, and discretion the key to it. The city of Jericho was called the City of Palms. Which candidate was chosen governor? Cicero was the most finished orator in Rome. He was elected senator on the first ballot. As the morning is the beginning of day, so youth is the earlier part of life. One was created lord by act of Parliament, another became earl by right of succession; one was made admiral of the fleet, and another was appointed commander of the army. It has become his master.

RULE X.

A noun, used to explain another, denoting the same object, is in opposition with it in the same case; as, *Webster*, the *statesman*, is dead. James, come to *me*, your *teacher*.

MODEL.

There falls the *avalanche*, the *thunderbolt* of snow.

This is a simple sentence, with one subject and one finite verb.

"Avalanche," the grammatical subject, is modified by the article "the," and by "thunderbolt" with its modifications, denoting the same thing as "avalanche," and thus describing it.

"Thunderbolt" is limited by "the," and indirectly by the phrase "of snow"; thus, "the avalanche, the thunderbolt of snow" is the modified subject.

"Falls" is the grammatical predicate, and "falls there," the modified predicate.

"Avalanche," a common noun, third, singular, neuter, is in the nominative case, the subject of "falls." The predicate precedes the subject by *poetical* arrangement.

"Thunderbolt" is a common noun, a name applied to *any one* of a class; third person, *spoken* of; singular, denotes but *one;* neuter, an object *without sex;* in the *nominative* case, directly modifying "avalanche," and used to explain it, denoting the same object; therefore it is in apposition with "avalanche," and in the *same* case.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze as usual, and parse only the words in apposition.*

Hope, the charmer, lingered still behind.

It was a people's loud acclaim,
The voice of anger and of shame,
A nation's funeral cry, —
Rome's wail above her only son,
Her patriot, — and her latest one.

We meet again, the children of the pilgrims, to remember our fathers. A labyrinth of ruins, Babylon spreads over the blasted plain. Fire and water, once our gentle, patiently drudging handmaids, were quietly domesticated on our hearthstones less than half a century ago.

RULE XI.

A noun, used independently is in the nominative case.

NOTE 1. *By address;* as, *John,* come here. By *pleonasm,* as, The pilgrim *fathers!* where are they? By *exclamation;* as, O, the *memory* of other days!

2. A pronoun of the first person is sometimes used independently in the objective; as, Ah *me!* *Me* miserable!

MODEL.

Friends, I come not here to talk.

This is a simple sentence, containing but one proposition, addressed

to persons denoted by a word used independently of the rest of the sentence, in grammatical construction.

"I" is the grammatical subject, unmodified; "come" is the predicate, and "come not here to talk" is the modified predicate.

"Friends" denotes the persons to whom the sentence is addressed.

"Come" is modified by the adverbs "not" and "here," and indirectly by the infinitive phrase "to talk," denoting a purpose or object.

"Friends" is a common noun, applying to *any* of a class; usually masculine or feminine gender, as denoting either sex or both; here denoting *men* addressed by Rienzi, therefore masculine, and plural; second person, denoting persons *spoken to;* nominative case, used independently to represent the persons to whom the proposition, as such, is here addressed.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze as usual, and parse only the words that are used independently, having no case-relation to other words in the sentence.*

Solomon thy son, he shall build my house and my courts. Stranger, the land is mine. Father, thy hand hath reared these venerable columns. I cannot, my lords, I will not join in congratulation on misfortune and disgrace. 'Tis wonderful! and yet, my boy, just such is life.

Then, if thou fall'st, O Cromwell,
Thou fall'st a blessed martyr.

Maternity, ecstatic sound; so twined round our hearts that they must cease to throb ere we forget it.

The stately homes of England,
How beautiful they stand!

A sacred band, they take their sleep together.

New England's dead! New England's dead!
On every hill they lie.

Poor Indians! where are they now? Indians, friends, brothers! O, forgive my countrymen. No, land of liberty! thy children have no cause to blush for thee. Beneath the sun, beneath the moon, his teeth they chatter still.

Rule XII.

A noun, joined with a participle, and not connected in construction with the rest of the sentence, is used independently in the nominative case; as, *Shame* being lost, all virtue is lost.

MODEL.

No precious *fate* with mine involved, my heart is fearless, firm my step.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two distinct independent clauses, and one not in the form of an *assertion*, but rather of an *assumption*, consisting of a *noun* and a *participle*, each of which is modified, and which might be the subject and predicate of a dependent clause if expanded.

"Heart" is the subject, and "my heart" the modified subject, of the first independent clause; "is," the predicate, is modified by "fearless," an adjective in the predicate; thus the quality of fearlessness is asserted as belonging to the subject; and "is fearless" is the modified predicate.

Of the other independent clause, "step" is the subject, and "my step" the modified subject; "is," *implied*, is the predicate, and "is firm" the modified predicate, *asserting* firmness of its subject.

The *undeveloped* clause, containing an *assumed* fact, equivalent to "when no precious fate is involved with mine," or "if no precious fate," &c., when expanded into a full clause, would be dependent as connected with the others, having "fate" for its subject, and "is involved" for its predicate.

This differs from a clause, only in not containing a grammatical predicate; it is in *meaning* equivalent to a dependent clause, though not in grammatical structure.

"Fate" is a *noun*, name of an object: *common*, applying to any one of the class; *third* person, spoken of; *neuter* gender, name of neither a male nor a female being; *singular* number, denoting only one object; nominative case, and used independently with the imper-

fect passive participle "being involved," which belongs to it, limiting it.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *After the usual analysis, parse the words used independently as participles.*

The service done, the mourners stood apart, and the villagers closed round to look into the grave. That done, the child turned to the old man with a lovely smile upon her face, and clung with both her arms about his neck. The blue Mediterranean washes the Plain on the west, its silver waves sweeping round the northern base of Mount Carmel, and forming the Bay of Acre. North-east the great Hermon shoots up beyond its brethren, its head wrapped in perpetual clouds. Peace of mind being secured, we may smile at misfortunes.

RULE XIII

The interjection is generally used without grammatical relation; as, Alas! I fear he is ruined.

MODEL.

Alas! the remedy came too late.

The full clause has for its subject "remedy"; its grammatical predicate is "came," and its modified predicate, "came too late."

The word "alas," which is equivalent to a clause, is here used to express regret; "alas" = *I am sorry that*, or *I regret that*. Here it is an *effect*, of which the following clause supplies a *cause*. This connection, however, is only in meaning, not in construction.

"Alas" is an interjection, here logically joined, as a result, with the following clause; but having no grammatical connection, except as an undeveloped clause, requiring other words to be substituted for it.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse only the* interjections *in the following sentences.*

Alas! I fear for life. "Ah!" said the corporal, "the lieutenant's last day's march is over." "A-well-a-day!" said Trim,

maintaining his point, "the poor soul will die." Ah! now I understand you. Hurrah! the foe is moving! Hush! hush! thou vain dreamer! Zounds! sirrah, it shall be as I say. O, thou Eternal One! O, save me, Hubert, save me!

Rule XIV.

Participles are used in the relations of adjectives and nouns; and, when derived from transitive verbs, take a direct object; as, Their bones lie *mouldering* in the dust. By *doing* nothing, we learn to do ill.

MODEL.

In the *hearing* of the troops, the commander proclaimed an order *regulating* the manner of *relieving* guard.

"Commander," the subject of this simple sentence, is directly limited by "the," and "the commander" is the modified subject.

"Proclaimed," the grammatical predicate, is directly modified by "order" in the *objective phrase* "an order regulating," &c., and indirectly by the phrase "in the hearing of the troops"; thus, all the words in the sentence, except "the commander," constitute the *modified predicate.*

"Hearing" is directly modified by "the," and indirectly by the phrase "of the troops"; and "troops" is directly modified by "the."

"Order" is directly modified by "an," and the participle "regulating" used in the relation of an adjective, and still retaining the power of a verb.

"Regulating" is directly limited by the word "manner" in the phrase "manner of relieving guard."

"Manner" is directly limited by "the" and the phrase "of relieving guard."

"Relieving" is directly limited by "guard."

"Hearing" is the imperfect participle of the transitive verb "hear." It is here used wholly in the relation of a noun, being

limited by an article "the"; and having laid aside its power as a verb, of taking an object, it has an indirect modification. It is in the *objective*, after "in," and limits "proclaimed."

"Regulating" is the imperfect participle of the transitive verb "regulate," used in the relation of an *adjective*, and modifying "order"; it retains the power of the transitive verb to take a direct object, and is limited by "manner."

"Relieving" is a participle, from the transitive verb "relieve," used in the relation of a noun, objective after the preposition "of," connecting it with "manner." It retains its power as a verb, and is limited by "guard."

NOTE. A participle used in the relation of a noun, with or without a direct object to limit it, is always *third*, *singular*, and is represented by the pronoun "it."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse the participles in the following examples.*

A thin mist, curling upward, reveals the white tents of Israel, gleaming in the soft light of early dawn. By entertaining good thoughts, you will keep out evil ones. A word once uttered can never be recalled. There was little sleep in Moss Side between the rising and setting of the stars. A mighty army, flushed with victory, is approaching their walls. After all, disciplining and educating your mind must be your own work. Written on thy works, I read the lesson of thy own eternity. Round the city they have marched, seeking a vulnerable point, but finding none. We cannot peruse the fate of Chatterton without being moved. Credit lost is like a broken looking-glass.

RULE XV.

A verb without a subject-nominative, preceded by "to," is in the infinitive mood.

NOTE. A verb thus unlimited by number or person may be used in any relation of the noun except the possessive; or it may modify a verb, noun, adjective, or adverb, to denote a purpose, object, or result; as, *To excel* is his desire. He *desired to* excel. A *desire to* excel. *Anxious to* excel. He was well *enough to* excel.

MODEL.

Having a desire *to learn*, John endeavored *to study*.

"John," the subject of this simple sentence, is directly modified by the participial phrase "having a desire to learn"; and "endeavored," the predicate, indirectly by the infinitive phrase "to study."

The phrase "to learn" limits "desire."

"Desire" directly limits "having," which, in the relation of an *adjective*, refers to "John"; so that "John having a desire to learn" is the *modified subject;* and "endeavored to study," the *modified* predicate.

"Learn" is a verb as it can be used to assert. Present *learn*, past *learned*, perfect participle *learned*. It can be transitive or intransitive; here used without a definite object, and in sense *intransitive*. It has no subject-nominative, and is preceded by "to," in the infinitive mood, present, and modifies "desire,"

"Study" is a verb, for it can be used to assert; regular — *study, studied, studied; intransitive*, though it is sometimes transitive; in the infinitive mood, present, and limits "endeavored," denoting the purpose of his endeavors or efforts.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze as usual, and parse only verbs in the infinitive mood.*

With honest warmth he turns to bless his Maker. He came to shrive the dying, bless the dead. Hope comes with smiles the hour of pain to cheer. Leaves have their time to fall. I did not come to praise Cæsar, but to bury him. The simpler comes for herbs of power on thy banks to look. You have friends to cheer you on; you have books and teachers to aid you. The young have friends to soothe, pleasures to beguile, a world to divert and dissipate their griefs. This column will contribute to produce in all minds a feeling of dependence and gratitude. She learned to read out of the Bible almost without any teaching. How the child learns to modulate its feeble voice, unable yet to articulate! Webster struggled to make Bunker Hill Monument visible from every portion of the land.

RULE XVI.

Conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, and sentences; as, *Two* and *three* are five. A *great* and *good* man has left us. True eloquence must exist *in the man*, *in the subject*, and *in the occasion*. *John walked*, and *William rode*.

MODEL.

The temperate man's pleasures are durable, for they are regular; *and* all his life is calm *and* serene, *because* it is innocent.

This sentence is divided into two members by the semicolon, and they are connected by the conjunction "and."

Each member contains two clauses, connected by the causal conjunctions "for" and "because."

The first clause in each member is independent, and contains the proposition for which a reason is given in the second clause.

"Pleasures" and "life" are the grammatical, and "the temperate man's pleasures" and "all his life" are the modified subjects of the two independent clauses; "are durable" and "is calm and serene" are the modified predicates of the same.

In the two dependent clauses, "they," representing "pleasures," and "it," representing "life," are the subjects unmodified; "are" and "is" are the grammatical predicates; and "are regular" and "is innocent," the modified predicates.

FOR is a conjunction, and connects the clause that assigns a reason, with the independent clause that contains the assertion.

AND is a conjunction, and unites the two independent clauses.

"Calm" and "serene," adjectives having a common dependence, are connected by "and."

By supplying the ellipsis in this case, as in most cases, the conjunction "and" may be made to connect clauses; as, "All his life is calm, *and* all his life is serene." It is better to parse without supplying the ellipsis.

BECAUSE is a conjunction, connecting the clause that contains the *cause*, with the independent clause that asserts the effect.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze as heretofore, and parse only the conjunctions.*

Avoid slander as you would a scorpion. As the grandfather approached, the church clock struck the hour of school, and their friend withdrew. The hours of this day are rapidly flying, and this occasion will soon be passed. Make them forget, too, if you can, that in the midst of all this innocence, simplicity, and bliss, the white man came. If I should leave the land of my fathers, whither shall I fly? There is eternal war between me and thee. Neither we nor our children can expect to behold its return. Thou shalt build, and I will burn, till the white man or the Indian shall cease from the land. The rain came down in torrents, but I did not feel it. We wish that labor may look up here, and be proud in the midst of its toil. Webster and Calhoun rarely suffered themselves to forget that they were senators as well as speakers. Mercy becomes the throned monarch better than his crown. If called to shed thy joys as trees their leaves; if the affections be driven back into the heart, as the life of flowers to their roots, be patient.

RULE XVII.

A preposition connects a limiting noun or pronoun with the word which it limits, and requires the limiting word to be in the objective case.

MODEL.

Washington was engaged *in* the service *of* his country *in* the army *before* the revolution.

This is a simple sentence, having but one subject and one finite verb.

"Washington," the subject, is unmodified.

"Was engaged" is the grammatical predicate, and the modified predicate is all the sentence except the subject "Washington."

"Was engaged" is indirectly limited by the three phrases, "in the service," "in the army," and "before the revolution"; "service" is indirectly limited by the phrase "of his country," and "country" directly by "his"; and "service," "army," and "revolution," each by "the."

"*In*" is a preposition, and connects "service" with "was engaged," which it indirectly limits.

OF is a preposition, connecting the modifying term "country" with "service," which it limits.

IN is a preposition, connecting "army" with "was engaged," which it limits.

BEFORE is a preposition, connecting "revolution," the consequent term of the relation, with "was engaged," which it limits.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse the prepositions only.*

One of the surest signs of the regeneration of society will be the elevation of the art of teaching to the highest rank in the community. The works of the age of Pericles lie at the foot of the Acropolis in indiscriminate ruin. The idol of to-day pushes the hero of yesterday from our recollection; and will, in turn, be supplanted by his successor of to-morrow. History fades into fable; fact becomes clouded with doubt and controversy; the inscription moulders from the tablet; the statue falls from the pedestal. The ivy, creeping over it, folded its green mantle around the shattered walls, and held its broken fragments together in one long, last embrace.

RULE XVIII.

Pronouns must be of the same person, number, and gender as the nouns which they represent; as, *Henry* recited to *his* teacher. *Anna* recited to *her* teacher. *Henry* and *Anna* recited to *their* teacher. *Thou*, *William*, still art young. *You* and *I* will go and see the *boy*, for *we* know *him*.

MODEL.

John does *his* work with a view to *its* effect on men and *their* opinions.

This is a simple sentence. "John" is the subject, and all the rest of the sentence is the modified predicate.

"Does" is the grammatical predicate, directly limited by "work," and indirectly by the phrase, "with a view to its," &c.; "view" is limited by the phrase "to its effect on," &c.; "effect" is limited by "its," and by the phrases "on men and their opinions"; "opinions" is limited by "their," and "work" by "his."

"His" is a personal pronoun, substituted for the noun "John"; therefore it must be of the same gender, number, and person, as "John." It has the form of the masculine, singular, third, possessive, and directly modifies the noun "work."

"Its" is a personal pronoun, representing the noun "work," and agreeing with it in person, number, and gender; therefore, it has the form of the third, singular, neuter. It has the special form for the possessive case, and directly limits the noun "effect."

THEIR is a personal pronoun, substituted for the noun "men," and representing it in number and person; therefore of the third, plural. It has the form of the possessive case, and limits the noun "opinions."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Parse only the pronouns, and analyze as usual.*

As the poor widow was gathering some vegetables for her scanty repast, she heard the gate suddenly opened. Ancient of days! thou speakest from above. The river, in its power, was at hand. If the savages forgave not injury, neither did they forget kindness. The bobolink was a bird of music and song, and thus he was sacred from injury; the very schoolboy would not fling a stone at him, and the merest rustic would pause to listen to his strain. You and I, indeed, may rue this declaration; we may not live to see it made good.

RULE XIX.

A relative pronoun connects the adjective clause of which it is a part, with another clause which it modifies; as, I have seen the man *who* bought our horse.

MODEL.

The teacher *who* is qualified for his office, is a blessing to the community.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two clauses; one independent, the other relative.

"Teacher," the subject of the independent clause, is limited by the article "the," and by the relative clause, which is here restrictive, and used as an *adjective* to modify "teacher."

"Is a blessing to the community" is the modified predicate of the independent clause, and "blessing," the noun in the predicate, is modified by the phrase "to the community."

"Who" is the grammatical subject of the adjective clause; "is qualified," the grammatical predicate; and "is qualified for his office," the modified predicate.

WHO is a relative pronoun, relating to "teacher" for its antecedent; it must be of the same person and number as the noun which it represents; therefore it is third, singular. It is nominative in form, because it is the subject of the verb "is qualified." It connects the two clauses.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze according to previous models, and parse the relative pronouns.*

Blest are the feasts which simple plenty crowns. Heaven helps him who helps himself. All that tread the globe are but a handful, to the tribes that slumber in its bosom. There was no trace by which the name of the ship could be ascertained. He that falls in love with himself, will have no rivals. Death lifts the veil that hides a brighter sphere. Do nothing you would wish to conceal. The noblest monuments of art that the world

has ever seen, are covered with the soil of twenty centuries. The man who is without God in the world, has broken the chain that binds him to the throne of the universe.

RULE XX.

Connective adverbs connect clauses, and show relation of time, place, manner, or cause; as, James will go *when* William comes. I will go *where* John goes. I will see *how* John does it. I will know *why* John does it.

MODEL.

John found the book *where* he left it.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of an independent and an adverbial clause.

"John," the grammatical subject of the independent clause, is not modified.

"Found," the grammatical predicate, is directly modified by the object "book," and by the clause "where he left it," used here as an *adverb of place.*

"He," a substitute for "John," is the subject of the adverbial clause; "left" is the predicate; and "left it" the modified predicate.

WHERE is a connective adverb, and connects the two clauses, showing the relation of place between the two actions to be identical.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the sentences, and parse the* connective adverbs.

A false friend and a shadow attend only while the sun shines. Catch the bear before you sell his skin. He looked a Roman senator in the days when Rome survived. There is nothing humbler than ambition when it is about to climb. When men speak ill of you, live so that nobody will believe them. He went to see how money might be made. If, then, that friend demand why Brutus rose against Cæsar, this is my answer.

RULES OF SYNTAX,

WITH

ILLUSTRATIONS AND EXCEPTIONS

IN ARRANGEMENT AND CONSTRUCTION.

RULE I.

The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case; as, The *boy* studies. *He* will learn.

NOTE 1. Like the Latin construction of an accusative before the infinitive mood, an objective case is often used in English before the infinitive, in such a relation, that it might be the subject of a clause, if the infinitive were changed into another mood, so as to become a predicate of the same clause; as, I know *him to be* a good man = I know that *he is* a good man.

2. The objective case of a noun or pronoun thus placed before the infinitive of an intransitive or passive verb, requires the noun or pronoun after it, having the same meaning, to be in the same case; as, I know *him* to be a good *man*.

REMARK 1. The subject may be a noun, pronoun, phrase, or clause.

Phrases: To see, or *to see the sun*, or *for me to see the sun*, is pleasant.

Clauses: That you understand me, or *that you understand what I have said*, is evident.

2. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood, being of the second person, and thus sufficiently obvious, is generally omitted; as, *Give* me neither poverty nor riches. *Let* me be a sharer in thy delight.

3. Sometimes the subject of the imperative is expressed; as, I will

lay on for Tusculum, and lay *thou* on for Rome. Be *ye* helpers one of another.

MODEL.

Give thy youth to study, since to discipline the mind increases its vigor.

This compound sentence has two clauses, connected by the conjunction "since." The first clause may be considered a command, exhortation, or direction; and the reason or motive is assigned in the last.

"Give," the predicate of the first, is in the imperative mood; its subject, *thou*, being of the second person, is understood. "Give" is directly modified by "youth," and indirectly by the phrase "to study." "Youth" is modified by "thy," representing the person addressed. Thus, "Give thy youth to study" is the modified predicate.

"Increases," the predicate of the last clause, is modified by "vigor," its direct object, in the objective. "Vigor" is modified by "its," representing "mind." Thus, "increases its vigor" is the modified predicate.

Now, if the question be asked, "What increases its vigor?" the answer will be, "To discipline the mind." Therefore the phrase "to discipline the mind" is the subject of the clause.

The phrase is composed of "to discipline," a verb in the infinitive mood, and its direct object, "mind," which is limited by the definite article "the."

"To discipline" is a *verb*, because it can be used to assert; *regular*, because its past tense and perfect participle are formed by adding *d* to the simple form; *transitive*, because it takes an object, "mind," to receive its action; *simple active form*, therefore the noun representing the object of its action is in the *objective* case; *infinitive mood*, because it is used without a subject-nominative, and is preceded by "to."

It constitutes with its object, "the mind," a phrase, and is here used in the relation of a noun. Thus the phrase, "to discipline the mind," is the subject of the verb "increases."

A phrase used as a noun is always *third, singular*, and represented by the pronoun "it."

"Thy" is a personal pronoun, representing the person to whom the sentence is addressed; second, singular, possessive case, and limits "youth."

"Its" is a personal pronoun, substituted for "mind"; third, singular, neuter, possessive (*why?*), and limits "vigor."

"Youth," "mind," and "vigor" are nouns, each *third, singular, neuter, objective* (*why?*), and are the objects of the transitive verbs "give," "discipline," and "increases," respectively.

"Study" is a noun, third, singular, neuter (*why?*), objective case after the preposition "to," thus indirectly limiting "give."

"The" is a definite article, and limits "mind." "To" is a preposition, showing a relation between "give" and "study," and thus connecting, in such modifying relation, "study" with "give."

"Give" is a verb; irregular, transitive, imperative, second person, singular (*why?*); it has for its subject "thou" *implied.*

"Increases" is a verb; regular, transitive, indicative, present (*why?*); it has the special form of the *third, singular*, as it is varied in this tense on account of person and number; and has for its subject the substantive phrase.

EXERCISES.

GENERAL DIRECTION. *In all the exercises under the Rules, besides the clausal and phrasal analysis, let the pupil parse each word in the several sentences, giving every particular respecting it, of form, property, or relation, &c. The pupil should be required to write out the analysis and parsing in full, on slate or paper; also upon a blackboard. Write five sentences under each remark, illustrating it.*

DIRECTION. *The pupil may* analyze *the following sentences, and* parse *each word as in the model.*

She learned to read from the Bible. Love thy neighbor as thyself. To instruct the throne in the language of truth has now become necessary. To die for one's country is sweet. Dying for one's country is sweet. Hang out our banners on the outward walls. The wreck had evidently drifted about for some months, and the name of the ship could not be ascertained. Bury then, thou snow, the hedgerows of trees. "Of" is a preposition, and it connects words, showing their grammatical relation.

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.

"Dust thou art, to dust returnest," was not spoken of the soul.

NOTE. It will be useful for the pupil to write out, on paper or his slate, the analysis and parsing of all the exercises given in this book.

ARRANGEMENT.

1. The subject naturally precedes the verb; as, *John* runs. But it is placed after the simple verb, or some part of a compound verb, in interrogative sentences; as, Lives there the *man*? &c. Has *he* left the city? Except when one of the principal parts is an interrogative pronoun; as, *Who* saw him do it?

2. Also in subjunctive clauses, if the conjunction implying a condition is not expressed; as, Were there no other *ground*, this alone would be sufficient. Should *I* conclude to go, I will call for you. *If there were. If I should.*

3. After the introductory adverb *there*, whether used as an expletive or not; as, *There* was scarcely a dry eye in the Senate. He looked behind him, — *there* was the historic man; he looked before him, — *there* was the living man, &c.

4. After a few other adverbs when they begin a clause; as, *Then* rose the shout. *Well* may posterity be grateful to his memory.

5. Often too by the poets and other animated writers; as, Back comes the *chief* in triumph. From the ground below comes up the *laugh* of children.

NOTE. The poet uses this arrangement chiefly for rhythm; the speaker for rhetorical effect; many writers, often for strength.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil* parse *each subject nominative in the following sentences; telling why, when it is placed before its verb; and continue the exercise in other books.*

Where is the iron-bound prisoner? Wilt thou not come? Could we have kept the head of the mainmast an hour longer, we might have got an offing. Were John here, he would assent to it joyfully. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods. There is a rapture on the lonely shore. There was no labored swell of pan-

egyric. Look on the table; there lies your long-lost book. Here sat the congregation, and here too came the persecuted Christians. And down fell many of the miserable wretches on their knees. Now came still evening on. Cries Bernard, "Here am I, and here's a sword," &c. Then on rode these strange horsemen. Safe comes the ship to haven. Here is a canting Covenanter for you, &c. How leaps for joy the peasant in his home! Here let me pause and breathe a while.

CONSTRUCTION. *Let the pupil construct ten sentences, illustrating the rule or some of the variations under it. Also construct sentences under each of the following rules.*

RULE II.

A verb agrees with its subject nominative in number and person; as, I *am*, he *was loved*.

REMARK 1. When two or more singular nominatives, denoting different objects, in forming a compound subject, are so connected, that the assertion is made of them jointly, the verb is generally plural, and also the pronouns that represent them; as, Village, hamlet, and metropolis alike *resound* with acclamations.

EXCEPTION. Sometimes, when the verb precedes, it is singular, being understood before each other one of the series; as, There *was* silence, gladness, and sorrow, and but little sleep in Moss Side, between the rising and setting of the stars, &c.

2. If the nominatives denote the same object, the verb is generally singular; so, too, the pronoun that represents them; as, A great man and an eminent statesman *has* departed, and *his* loss will be widely felt.

3. When the singular nouns, connected by "*and*" have *each*, *every*, or *no* limiting them, the verb is singular, and the pronoun representing them is singular; as, Each man and boy *was* earnest for *his* share.

4. When the addition is made by "with" instead of "and," the verb is singular; as, The ship, with her crew, *was* destroyed. If "and" be put in the place of "with," the verb must be made plural; as, The ship *and* her crew *were* destroyed.

5. When two or more singular nominatives, forming a compound subject, are considered separately, so that the assertion is made of *any* one of them, but *only* of *one*, the verb is generally singular, and the pronoun must be singular; as, The Egyptian mummies, which Cambyses or Time *hath* spared, avarice now consumeth.

6. But when either of the nominatives is plural, the verb is generally placed nearest to it, and is plural; as, Neither the man nor his neighbors *were* present.

7. If the nominatives constituting a compound subject are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one immediately preceding it, which should be the *first* in preference to the *second* or *third*, and the *second* in preference to the *third;* as, You or I *am* mistaken. John or thou *art* in fault.

NOTE. Where euphony requires it, a verb may be expressed for each nominative, when the compound subject consists of different persons, or even of different numbers; or the construction may be otherwise varied; as, You *are* mistaken or I *am*. John *is* in fault or thou *art*.

8. When the subject is a collective noun, the verb agreeing with it and the pronoun representing it are singular or plural, as the noun conveys unity or plurality of idea; as, But where, thought I, *are* the *crew*? *They have* gone down amidst the roar of the tempest. The crew *was* lost with the ship.

9. The verb is frequently omitted.

1st. In answer to a question; as, Who brought this book? John. That is, John *brought it*.

2d. After *than* or *as;* as, We have had as many opportunities as they, (*have had*.) John is wiser than I, (*am*,) but I am more industrious than he, (*is*.)

MODEL.

Neither you nor I am in the wrong; if James, William, and Henry do assert that we are.

The first clause is independent, and contains a negative proposition. The second clause is subordinate to the first, depending on it, and connected with it by the conjunction "if," so that the subjunctive

clause expresses a *supposition* or *condition*, in despite of which the denial is made in the leading clause.

The objective clause "we are," meaning "we are in fault," is connected with the subjunctive clause by the conjunction "that," and, in the relation of a direct object, limits the transitive verb "do assert."

"Am" is modified by the phrase "in the wrong." "You nor I" is the compound subject of the first clause, but the two parts are so connected that they are considered separately, so that the denial is made of each by itself, and not of the two jointly; while the correllative "neither" is used merely to strengthen the negation. "Am in the wrong" is the modified predicate.

"James, William, and Henry," connected by "and," *implied* in one case and expressed in the other, jointly considered, form the compound subject of the subjoined clause.

"Do assert," the predicate, is directly limited by the object of its action, the objective clause, "that we are." "We" is the subject, and "are" the predicate of the substantive clause.

"Am" is an irregular, intransitive verb, indicative, present (*why?*), first person singular, having the peculiar form appropriated to that person and number to agree in those respects with "I," that part of the compound subject placed nearest to it; as the first person is preferred to the second, where both are used, and the first should be nearest to the verb.

The verb is *singular*, because it does not agree with the two parts of the compound subject taken together jointly, but separately, each by itself.

"Do assert" is a regular, transitive verb, emphatic form, indicative, present, third person (*why?*), plural number, because the parts of its compound subject, though each is singular, are connected by "and" expressed or implied, and therefore are used *jointly*, requiring the plural form of the verb.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *In all the exercises, always give a written or oral analysis of each sentence, clausal, phrasal, and verbal, before parsing the words separately. Parse the nominatives, telling the compound subjects, in the following sentences, and whether they have a singular or plural verb and pronoun, and why.*

The spaciousness and gloom of a vast edifice produce a profound and mysterious awe. Honesty, industry, knowledge, and

piety grew up together in happy union. Here lies an empire, here a town, here a people, here a hero. A miserable pedant and bigot was then wielding the sceptre of Great Britain, and was looking with disdain on the little band of Pilgrims. This prodigy of learning, this scholar, critic, and antiquarian, was destitute of civility. Every bird and beast cowers before the wild blast. No tree, no flower, and no shrub grows in all that waste. Each man, each woman, and each child knows the hour. And smooth or rough, with them, is right or wrong. The boy's father and mother deserve great praise. The boy's father or mother deserves great praise. Neither the boy's father nor mother deserves great praise. The boy's mother, but not his father, deserves great praise. The boy's father, with the mother, deserves great praise. Even as the mists, or the gray morn before the rising sun, do pass away and perish. He or you have done wrong. Who discovered America? Columbus. I can understand them better than he. They do their work as well as you. He can run faster than I. Israel's embattled host have returned to their camps, without venturing an attack. If thou thinkest twice before thou speakest once, thou wilt speak twice the better for it. There is no breeze upon the fern, no ripple on the lake. A mighty army, flushed with victory, is approaching their walls; a victorious chieftain is leading them forward; an unknown and mysterious God is marching before them. Father, thy hand hath reared these venerable columns; thou didst weave this verdant roof. The crime, not the scaffold, makes the shame. No state chicanery, no narrow system of vicious politics, no idle contest for ministerial victories, sinks Chatham to the vulgar level of the great.

RULE III.

Adjectives directly limit nouns and their substitutes; as, *Good* men, *Seven* men, They are *happy*.

NOTE. Adjective pronouns and participles also limit nouns and their substitutes, when not themselves used as nouns.

REMARK 1. Adjectives and adjective pronouns implying unity belong to singular nouns; and, implying plurality, to plural nouns; as, *one* man, *two* men, *many* men, *all* men; *this* man, *these* men; *any* man, *any* men.

NOTE 1. "Pure air is the life of a school room." Here the quality of *purity* is taken or assumed as belonging to *air*. But in the sentence, "The air is pure," *purity* is *asserted* as belonging to the air. In each case the adjective "pure" refers to "air;" but in the latter case it is an adjective in the predicate, and its quality is asserted of the subject rather than assumed.

2. As participles, adjectives, verbs in the infinitive mood, phrases, clauses, and compound sentences, may be used as nouns, all such may have adjectives referring to them as in the following; viz., *to see* is pleasant; *to see the sun* is pleasant; *for one to see the sun* is pleasant; *that one should see the sun* is pleasant; *that one should see the sun when he first rises* is pleasant; *seeing* is pleasant; *seeing the sun* is pleasant; *seeing the sun rise* is pleasant; *the benevolent* are happy; *doing well* is better than wishing to do well; *running* is delightful; *running fast* is tiresome.

3. In the sentence, "to be good is *essential* to happiness," the adjective "essential" belongs to the phrase "to be good," here used as the subject of the sentence; and the adjective "good," a part of the phrase, limits the verb "to be." The phrase expresses an abstract quality indefinitely, and is equivalent to, *Goodness* is essential to happiness.

4. So too in the sentences, "*His being calm* was essential to the success of the surgical operation," and "*His having been calm* was worthy of praise," each of the two subject phrases has an adjective in the predicate referring to it. The adjectives *calm* limit in the one "being;" and in the other "having been;" constituting respectively in each a part of the phrase. This is better than awkwardly supplying an ellipsis, where the adjective is used indefinitely, without reference to any *noun*.

2. An adjective used without a noun *abstractly*, with the infinitive or participle of "be," "become," or a similar verb, may be parsed as limiting it.

3. Nouns used to express the quality of other nouns, especially the substance of which any thing is made, become adjectives, though sometimes by an additional syllable; as, an *iron* chain, a *gold* chain, a *golden* link, a *wooden* box, an *oak* chair, an *oaken* chest.

4. *All*, denoting quantity, is used with a singular noun; denoting number, with a plural one; as, *all* hope has fled, *all* men should worship God.

5. "*Many*," followed by *a* or *an*, is used with a singular noun; as, *Many* a one, *Many* a man, Full *many* a gem of purest ray serene, *Many an* hour.

6. *This* relates to the last mentioned of two objects, *that* to the first mentioned; *this* to the nearest object, *that* to the one farthest off. Their plurals, *these* and *those*, are also used in the same way; as,

Nor be thy generous *indignation* checked;
Nor checked the tender *tear* to Misery given;
From Guilt's contagious power shall *that* protect,
This soften and refine the soul for heaven.

7. In comparing two objects, the comparative degree is generally preferred, though good usage sanctions the superlative; as, John is *wiser* than I, He is *larger* than you, He is *taller* than either of us, He is the *stronger* of the two, or He is the *strongest* of the two.

8. In other comparisons, the superlative is generally used; as, William is the *best* boy in the school, He was the *manliest* of you all, The *greatest* of these three is charity.

NOTE. Care must be taken that the latter term of comparison, in the use of the comparative degree, should never include the former; nor exclude it, in the use of the superlative; as, Gold is more precious than any metal, *should be*, Gold is more precious than any other metal; Gold is the most precious of all other metals, *should be*, Gold is the most precious of all metals.

9. When from a verb compounded with a preposition, as "look for," an adjective is formed by prefixing the syllable *un* to the perfect participle, as "unlooked for," or "unlooked-for," it may be parsed as a compound adjective, whether written with a hyphen or not; as, An event so *unlooked for* discouraged him.

10. Adjectives are sometimes used as adverbs, especially by the poets; as, *Bold* can he speak, and fairly ride. *Fierce* he broke forth. Of *near* two hundred and fifty authors, &c. Here, bold = boldly, fierce = fiercely, and near = nearly.

11. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided. They are sometimes found in the old writers; as, This was the *most unkindest* cut of all.

ARRANGEMENT.

REMARK 1. The adjective is generally placed before the noun that it qualifies or limits; as, *Good* men.

NOTE. The adjective should be placed so near the noun it limits, as to prevent all ambiguity.

2. An adjective, indirectly modified by other words, may follow its noun; as, A man *diligent* in business.

3. Also when the quality is asserted, as in the predicate; as, Honey is *sweet*.

4. When the quality proceeds from the action of the verb; as, Idleness makes a man *poor*.

5. When the adjective belongs to a *pronoun*, it generally comes after it; as, We found him *studious* and *attentive*.

MODEL.

Pure air and free exercise are indispensable; and wherever either of them is withheld, the consequence will be fatal.

This compound sentence consists of two independent clauses connected by "and;" and one dependent, connected with them by the connective adverb "wherever."

The first clause has a compound subject consisting of two nouns in the singular, connected by "and." They are used jointly, and require a plural predicate.

"Are" is the predicate, and "indispensable" is an adjective in the predicate.

"Consequence" is the subject of the second independent clause; "will be" is the predicate, modified by the adverbial clause as an adverb of place; and "fatal" is an adjective in the predicate.

The adverbial clause is connected with the second independent clause by the connective adverb "wherever."

The distributive pronoun "either," used in the relation of a noun, is the subject, and is limited by the phrase "of them;" "is withheld" is the predicate.

"Pure" is an adjective limiting "air;" and "free" is an adjective limiting "exercise."

"Indispensable" is an adjective in the predicate, compared by *more* and *most*; here, in the *simple* form, expressing a quality asserted of both "air" and "exercise," the joint subject of the clause.

"Fatal," the adjective in the predicate of the additional independent clause, expresses a quality as asserted of the subject "consequence."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the following sentences, and parse each word in its several forms, properties, and relations, giving reasons therefor.*

Pure air is essential to health. We are like them, simple, hardy, bold. On old Bunker's lonely height the grass grows green. The bugle's wild and warlike blast shall muster them no more. Other countries may possess a richer soil and a gentler sky. Other nations have gathered more laurels and twined more garlands. No wind that blew was bitterer than he. It is a truth fitted to awaken our most fervent gratitude. Of the more subtile movements, we take no available cognizance. His cheek looks pale. You will make him mad. We live in a most extraordinary age. A fairer and better land yet shall be ours. How beautiful is all this visible world! Many a sigh called forth by thee has swelled my aching breast. The influence of true religion is mild, and soft, and noiseless, and constant as the descent of the evening dew on the tender herbage, nourishing and refreshing all the amiable and social virtues; but enthusiasm is violent, sudden, rattling as a summer shower, rooting up the fairest flowers, and washing away the richest mould in the pleasant garden of society.

> Some place the bliss in action, some in ease;
> Those call it pleasure, and contentment these.

The smooth stream in smoother numbers flows. He was the proudest in his strength, the manliest of you all.

RULE IV.

PART 1. The article *a* or *an* limits nouns in the singular number only; as, *a* man, *an* hour.

2. The article *the* limits nouns in either number; as, *the* man, *the* men.

REMARK 1. Before an abstract or a proper noun, and where the meaning of a noun is in itself definite, and in its use unrestricted, the article is generally omitted; as, before gold, beauty, Thomas, Cæsar, virtue, vice, goodness, anger, love, painting, sculpture, chemistry, metaphysics, &c.

NOTE. When restricted, the article is used; as, The gratitude of the man was apparent.

2. Care must be taken, in the use or omission of the article, to avoid ambiguity; as, a red and a white flag = *two* flags, each of only *one* color. But a red and white flag = only *one* flag, and that of *two* colors.

3. Sometimes the noun may be put in the plural, and then the *article* need not be *repeated;* as, The Old and the New Testament = The Old and New Testaments. The first and the second day = The first and second days. Sometimes, however, for emphasis chiefly, the article is repeated; as, Cicero, the orator and the patriot.

4. The use or omission of *a* before *few* and *little* materially affects the sense; as when we say, "*Few* men observed it," we mean to say it was almost entirely overlooked. But when we say —"*A few* men observed it," we assert positively that there were some who noticed it, though not many. "He had *a little* money" = he had some money. But "He had *little* money," gives a negative meaning to the assertion.

5. So, too, after a comparison; as, "John is *a* better farmer than *a* preacher" = than a preacher is. Here the comparison is between John and some preacher, as to their skill in farming. But "John is a better farmer than preacher" declares John's superior ability in the former capacity. Here the comparison is between two employments for the same man.

6. When an adjective is used as a *noun*, *the* is generally used with it; as, *The benevolent* will be happy.

7. When a participle takes an article before it, it becomes a *noun;* as, Love is *the fulfilling* of the law.

8. The force of the comparative or superlative degree is sometimes increased by prefixing "the"; as, *The longer* you delay, *the more* you will dread it. *The sooner* you do it, *the better.*

9. In the phrases, *a great many* men, *a hundred* men, *a thousand* men, *a million* men, the words "many," "hundred," "thousand," and

"million," may be regarded as collective nouns, in the singular, and as having the article *a* (meaning *one*) belonging to them.

10. *An* is sometimes a conjunction, meaning *if*, and is chiefly so used by the old writers; as, Nay, *an* thou'lt mouth, I'll rant as well as thou.

ARRANGEMENT.

REMARK 1. The article is generally placed immediately before the noun it limits; as, The horse, a boy, an hour.

2. When an adjective and an article limit the same noun, the article generally precedes the adjective; as, A good man, the tall boy, an old horse.

3. In expressions like the following, the adjective precedes; as, Many an hour, all the boys, both the girls, such a tree, so large a book, what an error, too long a time, as fine a plant, how bright a day, full many a gem, &c.

MODEL.

Beauty is an all-pervading presence; and no man receives the true culture of a man, in whom sensibility to the beautiful is not cherished.

The sentence contains two independent propositions, which constitute its two members, connected by "and."

The last member contains an independent clause, limited by a relative clause used to restrict the subject "man;" and therefore, in the relation of an adjective limiting "man."

The relative "whom" connects these two clauses, relating to the subject "man," and representing it.

"Beauty," "man," and "sensibility" are the grammatical subjects of the three clauses respectively; and "is," "receives," and "is cherished," the grammatical predicates.

PRESENCE is a noun in the predicate, denoting the same thing as the subject, and directly limited by the compound participial adjective "all-pervading" and the article "an." So that the phrase "an all-pervading presence" is what is asserted of "beauty."

"Man" is limited by the adjective "no" and by the adjective clause restricting it.

"Culture" limits the transitive verb "receives" as its direct object,

and is indirectly limited by the phrase "of a man," and directly by "the" and "true."

"Man" is limited by the article "a." Thus both subject and predicate are modified.

In the relative clause, "sensibility" is indirectly limited by the phrase "to the beautiful," and "beautiful" is limited by "the." Thus "the beautiful" is used in preference to the abstract noun *beauty*.

The phrase "of a man" limits "culture," and the phrase "in whom" limits "is cherished."

The negative adverb "not" limits "is cherished." Thus both subject and predicate of the adjective clause are modified.

An is an indefinite article, used instead of *a* before the word "all" because it begins with a vowel sound; and it limits the word "presence."

THE is a definite article, and limits "culture."

A is an indefinite article, limiting "man" in number, but leaving it indefinite "what man;" extending to *any* man.

THE is a definite article, limiting definitely the noun "sensibility."

THE is a definite article, prefixed to the adjective "beautiful," which is used here without a noun, to express abstract quality, and consequently parsed as a noun.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Let the pupil analyze and parse the following sentences, on his slate, or on paper, as in the models. Also let him construct sentences illustrating the several* remarks *under each rule.*

The horses were drawing a carriage. After a few days the man will return. Alexander the Great died as the fool dieth. The cow is a useful animal. The avenging of an injury degrades a man. The great and the good leave an influence that tells on the actions of man. He counted a million, but the task was not finished. The more he struggles, the smaller becomes his chance for escape. The wisest and the best men sometimes err. Purity has its seat in the heart, but extends its influence over so much of the outward conduct, as to form a great and material part of the character.

RULE V.

Adverbs directly modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs; as, A *very* good man will *not always* act *very prudently*.

Remark 1. Adverbs also modify substitutes for adjectives and adverbs; as, He rowed the boat *across the river*. Here the adverbial phrase "across the river" modifies the verb "rowed," and is equivalent to "*there*"; but in the sentences, He rowed the boat *nearly* across the river, *almost* across the river, or *not quite* across the river, the adverbs *nearly*, *almost*, and the phrase *not quite* modify the phrase "across the river," rather than the preposition *across*; as, He sailed *precisely* at the hour. The arrow hit *just* above the mark. *Even* to old age.

2. Adverbial phrases are parsed like adverbs; they are abbreviated expressions, sanctioned by usage; as, in vain, in particular, in general, in fine, at once, from hence, by far, in short, some time ago, long time ago, several years before, &c.

3. *Where* is improperly used for *in which*, when *place* is not referred to; as, A resolution was offered, *where* the transaction was condemned in the strongest terms. *Where* should be *in which*.

4. *No*, used as an adverb of degree, is joined to comparatives; as, no nearer, no more, no higher, &c. Before a noun it is an adjective.

5. After verbs of motion, *hither* for here, *thither* for there, and *whither* for where, were formerly used; but have given place to *here*, *there*, and *where*.

6. The preposition *from* is unnecessary before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*; as, From whence come wars and fightings among you? = Whence come wars and fightings among you?

7. Some adverbs are used *independently*, not modifying a particular word, but a sentence; as, yes, yea, no, nay, ay, aye, amen, namely, to wit, truly, verily, likewise, &c.; as, Will John come? Yes.

8. *There*, as an introductory adverb, is often *expletive*, used merely for euphony; as, *There* is no office higher than that of a teacher of youth.

9. Adverbs are sometimes used as *nouns*; as, For fear the very stones prate of my *whereabout*. Till *then* farewell.

When I was young? Ah, woful *when!*
Ah for the change 'twixt *now* and then!

10. *All*, meaning *wholly*, is an adverb; as, *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

11. Two negatives in the same clause constitute an affirmative; as, *Nor* did he *not* know the way = He did know the way. So, too, He was *not un*prepared = He was prepared.

12. When an adverb connects clauses, the adverbial clause modifies some word in the clause with which it is connected, showing the relation of *time*, *place*, *manner*, &c., between the clauses; as, I will hold the horse *while* you are getting into the carriage. Here the connective adverb *while* connects the two clauses, and marks identity of time.

ARRANGEMENT.

REMARK 1. Adverbs should be placed, generally, before adjectives, after verbs, and between the auxiliary and the verb; as, John is *very* studious; he recites *correctly*, and his conduct is *highly* approved.

EXCEPTIONS. *Ever*, *never*, *sometimes*, *often*, *always*, and *only*, are commonly placed before the verb.

NOTE. The foregoing rule is general, but much disregarded. It is only necessary so to place the *adverb*, that its reference should never be doubtful.

2. An adverb should never come between "to," the sign of the infinitive, and its verb; as, He tried *thoroughly* to learn his lessons, or, He tried to learn *thoroughly*, not, He tried to *thoroughly* learn.

3. *Enough* is generally placed after the modified word; as, He did it well *enough*. The horse is strong *enough*.

4. Interrogative adverbs begin a clause; as, *Why* did you do it?

DIRECTION. *Construct sentences using adverbs in each.*

MODEL.

When she came back to her seat again, the cricket and the kettle were still keeping up the strain; and really they went very well together.

This sentence consists of two independent clauses, and an adverbial clause. The adverbial clause is connected with the first independent clause by the connective "when," expressing the relation of *time* between the two actions to be the *same;* so that the adverbial clause,

"When she came back to her seat again," modifies "were keeping," the grammatical predicate of the clause with which it is connected.

"She" is the grammatical subject of the adverbial clause; "cricket and kettle," of the first independent clause; and "they," of the additional clause.

"Came," the predicate of the adverbial clause, is modified indirectly by the phrase "to her seat," directly by "back," and "again"; and "seat" is limited by "her." Thus all of the clause except "she," is the modified predicate.

"Cricket" and "kettle," the compound subject, are each limited by the article "the."

"Were keeping," the predicate of the first independent clause, is directly modified by the noun "strain," being the object of the action of that transitive verb; by "still," "up," and by the adverbial clause.

WENT is the predicate of the last clause, and is directly limited by "together," and the phrase "very well"; and "well" is modified by the adverb "very," increasing the force of it. Thus the modified predicate is all the clause except "they."

WHEN is a connective adverb, used to connect the clauses, showing the relation of time to be simultaneous between the two actions.

BACK is an adverb, showing the *direction* after a verb of motion; not compared, and modifies "came."

AGAIN is an adverb, not compared, showing that the *action* was repeated; it modifies "came."

STILL is an adverb, denoting that the *action* was continued till *her return*, and modifies "were keeping."

UP is an adverb, modifying the verb "were keeping."

REALLY is an adverb, affirming the action of the verb, and modifies "went."

VERY is an adverb, increasing the force of the adverb "well," which it modifies.

WELL is an adverb, showing the manner of the *action*. Positive *well*, comparative *better*, superlative *best*. In the positive form, and constituting with "very," the adverbial phrase, "very well," which modifies "went."

TOGETHER is an adverb, showing the manner of the *action*, and modifies "went."

EXERCISES.

He never came a wink too soon. I will go at once, since he urges it so strongly. Did you go soon enough? No. I have two horses, viz.: a black one and a white one. The boy has already behaved so well, that the teacher has openly commended his conduct. The pupil has hitherto recited remarkably well, and I am thus far well pleased with him. Where did the boys play? He died long ago. I love not man the less, but Nature more, from these our interviews. There is no necessity for hurrying so. She learned to read out of the Bible, almost without any teaching. The page was most carefully written. While there is life, there is hope. The nearer you came to him, the more you realized the vast capacity of his mind. The soldiers dashed down a less precipitous part of the banks, a little below the "craigs." He went to see how money might be made. He soared upward and upward, and was lost to the eye, far beyond the clouds.

RULE VI.

Prepositions require the objective case after them; as, John gave the book to *me*.

NOTE. A noun or pronoun indirectly modifying a word, and connected with it by a preposition, is in the objective case.

REMARK 1. The *antecedent term* of a relation is sometimes implied; as, All shall know him, *from* the least to the greatest. That is, all *included in the class extending* from, &c. O *for* a lodge in some vast wilderness! O = *I wish*. "For" connects "lodge" with "I wish," or the intensified expression "O," which is here an interjection, or an undeveloped clause.

2. Sometimes the *limiting word* is omitted, especially when it is obvious from the context; this is often the case when it is a pronoun; as, I saw the man I was working for = I saw the man *for whom* I was working. He came to the river and sailed across (*it*). He strolled around in search of a hotel = *around the place*. But in such cases,

instead of supplying the ellipsis, the preposition is generally parsed as an adverb.

3. So, also, the phrases *in vain*, *in short*, *in general*, *in particular*, *in secret*, *at first*, *at last*, &c., are parsed as adverbs, though the ellipsis may be supplied; as, In a vain *manner*. In a short *time*. In a secret *place*. In a particular *manner*. At the first *time*, &c.

4. Sometimes the *connecting word* is omitted. It occurs most frequently before nouns, signifying *time*, *space*, *distance*, *direction*, *dimension*, *weight*, or *measure;* as, He was away from home one *year*. He was idle several *days* last *week*. He walked two *miles* that *day*. The wall is six *feet* high, three *feet* thick, and four *miles* long. The man went that *way*.

NOTE 1. The ellipses may be supplied; as, *During* one year, *during* several days *in* last week, *on* several days *of* last week, *through the space of* two miles *on* that day, high *to the extent of* six feet, thick *through the space of* three feet, and long *through the distance of* four miles, *in* that way. In parsing, say "objective of *time*," &c., instead of supplying the ellipsis.

2. Before "home" the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, he went *home*, or he went *to his* home; Go *home*.

5. The preposition is also omitted after the words *worth*, *like*, *unlike*, *near*, and *nigh*, and sometimes after *worthy* and *unworthy;* as, The book is *worth* a dollar. A figure *like* your father. I was *nigh* or *near* him.

NOTE. The ellipses may be supplied; as, The book is *of the* worth *of* a dollar, *equal in* worth *to* a dollar; not, The book is *equal in price or value to* a dollar. This last is *substitution*, not supplying an ellipsis.

6. After *like*, *near*, and *nigh*, "to" or "unto" may generally be supplied in parsing. By some these words are parsed as prepositions.

7. After some verbs, limited both directly and indirectly, the preposition is omitted, when the term of *indirect* limitation precedes the *direct;* as, I gave *him* the book. But if the direct object comes first, then the preposition should be expressed; as, I gave the book *to* him.

NOTE 1. The verbs after which the preposition is most frequently omitted are, *ask*, *teach*, *buy* or *sell*, *bring* or *carry*, *give* or *present*, *get*, *send*, *refuse*, *sing*, *tell*, *show*, *provide*, *pay*, *toss*, *pass*, *throw*, *pour*, *hand*, *write*, &c.

2. The exclamatory sentence, Woe is me! = Woe is *to* me!

8. "A shout was heard from within the palace." Here the phrase "within the palace" is connected with "heard" by "from." Or the ellipsis may be supplied, as, "from a place within the palace." The following prepositions are thus used together; as, From without, from above, from beyond, from around, according to, round about, from under, from within, over against, &c.; as, It came *from beyond* the sea = It came from *a place* beyond the sea; from under the bridge = from *a place* under the bridge.

9. The limiting term used as the objective after a preposition may be an infinitive mood, a participial noun, a phrase, or a clause; as, He was *about to go* to the rescue. *In giving* an account of the battle, he made several errors. His stay will depend entirely *on how he is received in this country* = on his reception, or the manner of his reception.

10. The limiting noun is sometimes connected with two antecedent terms, but by different prepositions. This has been condemned by grammarians, but prevails, and is often necessary; as, The ruling of grammar is *against*, and the practice of writers in favor *of*, this use of the preposition. In this example, by a different arrangement, this construction may be avoided; as, The ruling of grammar is against this use of the preposition; but the practice of writers, in favor of it.

NOTE. For definiteness and precision, much use is made of this form in law writings, &c.

11. *Than* is used as a preposition before *whom* and *which*, as, Satan, than whom none higher sat.

12. After a verb of motion, *into* is used; as, He went into the house, *not* in the house. After a verb of rest, *in* is generally used; as, He remained in the house.

ARRANGEMENT.

Prepositions precede the limiting nouns, and should be placed near them; as, John rode *to* Baltimore *in* a chaise *with* his uncle.

EXCEPTIONS. The relative "that" precedes the preposition; so also sometimes "whom" and "which", as, I saw the book *that* he sent *for*. This is the house *which* he lived *in*. Here is the man *whom* you wrote *to*.

In the two last examples, the preposition could be placed before the pronoun; as, This is the house *in which* he lived. Here is the man *to whom* you wrote.

The arrangement with the relative "that" cannot be altered.

MODEL.

Jane was reading out of the Bible, which had been given her by the teacher.

A compound sentence. "Jane," the subject of the independent clause, is not modified; "was reading," the predicate, is limited by the phrase "out of the Bible," restricting this reading to the "Bible"; and "Bible" is limited by the clause "which had been given her by the teacher," still further restricting her reading in this instance to *one* particular Bible.

Thus all of the sentence, except the word "Jane," is the modified predicate.

The adjective clause, "which had been given her by the teacher," is connected with the main clause by "which," a relative pronoun.

"Which," representing "Bible," is the unmodified subject of the subordinate clause; "had been given," the predicate, is limited by the phrases "(*to*) her," and "by the teacher."

As "teacher" is connected with "had been given" by the preposition "by," and "her" by the preposition "to" *implied*, these, like all other modifications by means of prepositions, are called *indirect*.

The modified predicate of the relative clause, then, is "had been given her by the teacher."

"Jane" is a proper noun, third, singular, feminine, nominative, subject of "was reading" (why?).

"Was reading" is an irregular verb, progressive form, indicative, past, has the form of the *third*, *singular*, to agree with its subject in these respects (why?).

"Out of" is a compound preposition, connecting "Bible" with "was reading," in the relation of a modifying word.

"The" is a definite article, limiting "Bible" to a *particular* one, described in the adjective clause.

"Bible" is a noun, third, singular, neuter, objective (why?), after the preposition "out of," and indirectly modifies "was reading."

"Which" is a relative pronoun, representing "Bible," and therefore third, singular, neuter, agreeing in these respects with its antecedent; nominative case, subject of "had been given," and connects the two clauses.

"Had been given" is an irregular, transitive verb, passive form, indicative, past perfect (why?); not varied in this tense for person or

number; has "which" for its subject, representing "Bible," and therefore *third, singular.*

"Her" is a personal pronoun, substituted for the word "Jane," and representing it in gender, number, and person; therefore, third, singular, feminine; objective case, after the preposition "to" *implied*, which connects it with "had been given," in the relation of an indirect modification.

"By" is a preposition connecting "teacher" with "had been given" in the relation of a modifying word.

"The" is a definite article, limiting "teacher" to some particular one, previously alluded to or known.

"Teacher" is a noun, *third, singular*, applicable to either sex, therefore *masculine* or *feminine*, and objective case after the preposition "by," expressing the relation of "teacher" to "had been given," the verb it indirectly modifies.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the clausal and phrasal analysis of these exercises, parsing each word, with every particular respecting it, and reasons for the same.* Written *analysis and parsing will insure the entire exercises for each pupil.*

Special attention should be given by parents and teachers to the physical development of the child. No one can do this but yourself. He did but float a little way, adown the stream of time. If any, against all these proofs, should maintain that the peace with the Indians will be stable without the posts, to them I will urge another reply. The quiet room seems like a temple. They are changed in every thing save form alone. He rode ten miles a day, six months in the year. The book was worth a dollar. I sold him a tract of land, two hundred rods long and sixty wide. From out of the depths have I called thee. The calm, noiseless spirit of life was in and around the house. One to-day is worth two to-morrows. The utmost we can hope for in this world is contentment. In all, save form alone, how changed art thou! Whenever words are contrasted with, contradistinguished from, or opposed to, other words, they are always emphatical. He has taken his garment from before the sun, and caused it to shine with brightness upon us.

RULE VII.

The direct object of a transitive verb is in the objective case; as, I found *them*. We saw *him*. Men worship *God*.

NOTE. This does not apply to the passive form.

REMARK 1. Participles of transitive verbs, except in the passive voice, also take the objective case after them; as, We found him *driving* the *oxen*. *Having written* a *letter* and *sealed it*, he went to the post office. We should worship God, *loving him* and *serving him* with the whole heart.

2. The object of a transitive verb may be a word, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence; as, He knows *how* to *command*. Some said, by their silence, "*Better stay at home.*" I heard *that he was coming to school again*.

3. An intransitive verb may take an objective case when the object and verb are kindred in meaning; as, *Run* the *race* set before you. Let me *die* the *death* of the righteous. He *dreamed* another *dream*.

NOTE. Other intransitive verbs sometimes take the objective case after them, as in the following idioms: The very streams *ran blood*. He *walked* the *horse*. He *trotted* the horse. He *galloped* his *horse*. He *danced* the *child*. They *talked* the *hours* away. They *laughed him* to scorn. John could not *look him* in the face. He *ran* a *coach* to the steamboat.

4. In English, as in Latin, verbs that signify to *name* or *call*, to *choose* or *elect*, to *appoint* or *constitute*, to *esteem* or *reckon*, to *think* or *consider*, *deem*, *make*, *create*, &c., take after them two objectives, when both denote the same person or thing; as, They chose *him governor*.

NOTE 1. The verb "to be" is frequently *implied* between the two objectives; when it is expressed, one word may be considered the objective *before* the infinitive, and the other, a noun in the predicate, objective after "to be"; as, They chose *him* to be *governor*.

2. When such verbs are used in the passive form, both objectives are put in the nominative case, one before, and the other after the verb, while the former subject indirectly modifies the verb; as, *He* was chosen *governor* by *them*.

5. Verbs that signify to *ask*, *teach*, *buy* or *sell*, *bring* or *carry*, *give* or *present*, *get*, *send*, *offer*, *lend*, *refuse*, *sing*, *tell*, *show*, *provide*, *promise*,

pay, toss, pass, throw, pour, write, &c., take two objects after them, one direct, the other indirect; as, John gave *me* this *book*. But when the *direct* object comes between the verb and the *indirect* object, the *implied* preposition must be expressed; as, John gave this book *to* me. The direct object may be a clause; as, I promised *him that I would do it.*

NOTE 1. This is like the Latin construction, dative of the person and accusative of the thing. When the ellipsis is supplied, and the implied preposition is expressed, the order of arrangement must be changed; as, "John gave this book to me," is better than "John gave to me this book"; better still, "John gave me this book."

2. When such words become passive, the *direct object* is made the subject of the verb, and a preposition is sometimes expressed before the *indirect object;* also before the *former subject;* as, This book was given *to* me *by* John, or This book was given me by John.

6. Some verbs may be used either as transitive or intransitive, according to their meaning; as, I returned to the city this morning. I returned your *book* this morning.

7. When the object of a verb is general or indefinite, it is often omitted; as, William studies. Charles reads. Anna recites.

ARRANGEMENT.

The object is generally placed after the verb; but in interrogative sentences, in verse, when emphatic, or when pronouns are used, it often precedes; as, Whom did you call? The bells he jingled, and the whistle blew. Short views we take, nor see the lengths behind. Him whom thou lovest we shall see no more.

The location should be such as to prevent ambiguity.

MODEL.

Consider each day of your life a leaf in your history; making thereon no record which you will ever wish to erase.

"Which" connects the two clauses, and relates to "record" for its antecedent. The relative clause is restrictive, used in the relation of an adjective limiting "record."

The subject of the independent clause, representing a person or persons as *spoken to*, and therefore presumed to be present, is *implied* as usual when the predicate is in the imperative mood.

"You," the *implied* subject, is modified by the participle "making" in the relation of an adjective; and "making," retaining its power as the participle of a transitive verb, is directly limited by the noun "record," in the objective; "making" is also modified by the adverb "thereon," used for "on it."

As the adjective clause modifies "record," the modified subject of the leading clause is, "You, making thereon no record which you will ever wish to erase."

"Consider" is limited by "day" and "leaf," as the direct objects of its action, both representing the same thing.

"Day" is limited by "each" and the phrase "of your life"; "leaf" is limited by "a" and the phrase "in your history." Thus, "Consider each day of your life a leaf in your history" is the modified predicate.

"You" is the subject of the adjective clause, and is not modified.

"Will wish," the predicate, is modified by the adverb "ever" and by the infinitive phrase "to erase."

"Erase" is limited by the pronoun "which," being the direct object of its action.

"Consider" — verb, regular, transitive, active form, imperative mood, singular or plural, second person (*why?*), has "you" *implied* for its subject.

"Each" — adjective pronoun, distributive, applying to any day of your life, therefore singular; limits "day."

"Day" — noun, third, singular, neuter *(why?)*, direct object of the transitive verb "consider," therefore in the objective.

"Of" — a preposition connecting "life" with "day." The phrase "of your life" is equivalent to an adjective limiting "day."

"Your" — a personal pronoun, representing the person or persons addressed, therefore *second* person *singular* or *plural*; used in the relation of possessor or owner, therefore *possessive* case; limits "life."

"Life" — noun, third, singular, neuter *(why?)*, objective case after the preposition "of" in the relation of a modifying term to the word "day."

"A" is an indefinite article, limiting "leaf" to *one*, but indefinitely to *any* leaf.

"Leaf" — noun, third, singular, neuter *(why?)*; objective after the transitive verb "consider," which is one of the verbs that take two words in the objective, when both represent the same object.

"In" — preposition, connecting "history" with "leaf," which is indirectly limited by "history"; the phrase "in your history" being equivalent to an adjective limiting "leaf."

"Your" — possessive case, limits "history." (See "*your*" before "*life.*")

"History" — noun, third, singular, neuter *(why?)*; objective after the preposition "in," being the modifying term of the prepositional relation.

"Making" — imperfect participle, from the transitive verb *make, made, making, made*; used in the relation of an adjective, and modifies "you" *implied*, the subject of "consider."

"Thereon" — adverb of *place*, meaning "on the leaf," modifies "making."

"No" — adjective, limits "record."

"Record" — noun, third, singular, neuter *(why?)*; objective, and limits "making," which is derived from a transitive verb.

"Which" — relative pronoun, substituted for "record," and representing its antecedent in number and person; therefore third, singular; objective, the direct object of the transitive verb "erase."

"You" — personal pronoun, second person, singular or plural, representing the person or persons addressed; nominative, and subject of the verb "will wish."

"Will wish" — regular verb, active form, indicative, future, *(why?)*, not varied to agree with its subject in person and number.

"Ever" — adverb of time, indefinite; modifies "will wish."

"Erase" — verb, regular, transitive, active form, infinitive, present, *(why?)*; used to denote a *purpose*, and modifies "will wish."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the clauses and phrases, and parse the words in the following sentences according to the models, giving reasons for each particular.*

To this query of Isaiah, the watchman replies, "That the morning cometh, and also the night." We loved them, and they respected us. You found him driving the oxen. The servants killed him whom the master sent. Having written the letter and

sealed it, he carried it to the post office. I heard that he was coming to school again. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way. Slow tolls the village clock the drowsy hour. He went to see how money might be made. Weigh well thy words before thou givest them breath. Even half a million gets him no other praise. How well thou reasonest, time alone can show. Gaming finds a man a dupe, and leaves him a knave. The ploughshare turns up the marble which the hand of Phidias had chiselled into beauty. They made Solomon, the son of David, king. I thank thee, Jew, for teaching me that word. Thy garb bespeaks thee a keeper of the chase. He spent his time and money in relieving distress and in befriending the orphan. The Author of my being formed me man, and made me accountable to him. They asked me to call them brethren. "Your honor knows," said the corporal, "I had no orders." I bring thee here my fortress keys. Better to die ten thousand deaths. He taught me penmanship. He told me the story. It shows the Christian his God, in all the mild majesty of his parental character. If the freshening sea made them a terror, it was a pleasing fear.

RULE VIII.

A noun, varied to denote the owner or possessor, directly limiting another, is in the possessive case; as, *John's* book, *our* sled, virtue has *its* reward.

Remark 1. Possession, ownership, or source is generally expressed by the limiting noun or pronoun, and it is often equivalent to an indirect limitation by means of a preposition; as, The king's palace = The palace of the king. But where possession or ownership is not implied, the possessive cannot be substituted for the indirect limitation, or if substituted, not without change of meaning; as, An acre of ground, love of money, a rod of iron, cannot be changed into the possessive form. "Our Father's love" means the love He bears to his children; but "The love of our Father" may mean "The love He bears to us," or "The love we bear to Him."

NOTE. Where these forms are convertible, it gives variety of expression and arrangement; as, "John's wife's father's house; better, "The house belonging to the father of John's wife."

2. The noun limited by the possessive is often understood, where it may be so readily inferred from the context that its omission will not cause obscurity; as "He bought the book at Crosby's," the word *store* being obviously implied.

3. It is generally omitted, too, where its expression would be a mere repetition, unnecessary, and often harsh; as, This book is John's (*book*). I saw Henry's boat, but not John's (boat). It is a painting of Raphael's = one of Raphael's paintings. Here the noun limited is understood, and when expressed is the objective after "*of*."

4. It is omitted also after *ours, yours, theirs, hers*, generally after *mine* and *thine*, and sometimes after *his;* as, The sled is *mine*, the ball is *yours*, the cap is *his*.

NOTE. It will be observed, however, that, in such cases, the noun, if expressed, would not only be a useless repetition, but would generally require a change in the form of the pronoun; as no one of them, except *his, mine*, and *thine*, can be followed by the noun it is intended to limit.

5. When joint ownership is expressed by two or more nouns, that only immediately preceding the limited word takes the possessive termination; as, William, Henry, and John's boat. But when the nouns denote separate owners of different things, each has the possessive termination; as, William's, Henry's, and John's boats.

6. When the name of a person consists of several words, or a title is prefixed to the name, the possessive termination is affixed only to the last word of the name; that is, they are considered together as a name, and parsed as *one* word; as, *George Washington's* election. *General Washington's* house. *General William Henry Harrison's* administration. *The Queen of England's* signature. Here the phrase "Queen of England's" is dealt with as a *single word*, limiting "signature." It has the possessive sign annexed to "England," although it is really the *Queen's* "signature."

7. Words in apposition, when not separated by a comma, have the possessive termination annexed to the last; as, David the psalmist's writings. For David my servant's sake. For my servant David's sake. Paul the apostle's advice. The apostle Paul's advice. The

baptist John's head. John the baptist's head. These may be parsed as phrases, in the possessive case, limiting respectively "sake," "advice," and "head."

MODEL.

William and Henry's kite was bought at Brown's; but its string was once Edward's.

The two clauses are independent, and connected by "but," denoting contrast.

"Kite," the subject of the first clause, is modified by two nouns having the possessive sign annexed only to the last, denoting joint ownership; and "William and Henry's kite" is the modified subject.

"Was bought," the predicate, is indirectly limited by the phrase "at Brown's (*store*)," and "store," *implied*, is limited by Brown's, denoting the owner or storekeeper; thus, "was bought at Brown's" is the modified predicate.

"String," the subject of the second clause, is limited by "its," substituted for "kite," and denoting the "kite's string"; thus, "it's string" is the modified subject.

"Was," the predicate, is limited by the adverb "once" and the predicate-nominative "*string*," understood, which is limited by Edward's, denoting the former owner of the string.

There is an ellipsis of the words "store" and "string," because they are sufficiently obvious from the context, and euphony requires their omission.

"WILLIAM and HENRY'S" are proper nouns; each third, masculine, singular, possessive, though the sign of the possessive is annexed only to the last, it being a joint ownership.

BROWN'S is a proper noun, name of an individual, third, masculine, singular, possessive, denoting a possessor or owner; and limits "store," *implied*.

ITS is a personal pronoun, representing "kite," and therefore of the same person, gender, and number; third, singular, neuter. It has the form of the possessive case, and limits "string," the name of the thing possessed.

EDWARD'S is a proper noun, a particular name; third person, spoken of; masculine, male being; singular, only one; possessive, denoting the owner, and limits "string," *implied*.

"Kite" is a common noun, third, singular, neuter (*why?*); nominative, subject of the verb "was bought."

"At" is a preposition connecting "store" *implied*, the modifying term of the relation, with "was bought."

"Was bought" is an irregular verb, in the passive form, indicative, past (*why?*); it has the special form of the third, singular, agreeing in these respects with "kite."

"But" is a conjunction, expressing opposition, and connecting the two clauses.

"String" is a noun, third, singular, neuter (*why?*); nominative, subject of the verb "was."

"Was" is an irregular, intransitive verb, indicative, past, third, singular (*why?*); special form to agree with its subject "string."

"Once" is an adverb, and modifies "was."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse the following sentences, writing out in full both facts and reasons.*

Once she flung her arches over Euphrates' conquered tide. William's and Henry's kites were destroyed. It was a people's loud acclaim; a nation's funeral cry; — Rome's wail above her only son, &c. The slanderer's mouth costs him something, though he never opens it but at others' expense. The mountain's glowing brow betokens the sun's approach. For thou art freedom's now, and fame's. A mother's tenderness and a father's care are nature's gifts for man's advantage. I will not do it for David thy father's sake. They bought the history at Crosby's, the bookseller. The extent of the king of England's prerogative is clearly defined. The pound of flesh is mine, and I will have it. The wide earth bears no nobler heart than thine. What an eventful life was hers! A fop is a ridiculous character in every one's view but his own.

RULE IX.

Intransitive and passive verbs have the same case after as before them, when both words denote the same object;

as, *He* was named *John*. *I* am *he*. *Thou* art the *man*. *I* know *him* to be an honest *man*.

NOTE. This rule refers to construction, and not arrangement; as, Art thou he? Dust thou art, to dust returnest. Is he a good man?

REMARK 1. A noun in the predicate may differ in number and person from the subject; as, My chief haunt is the banks of a small stream. It was he. It was they. Thou art he.

2. The verbs that most frequently take a noun in the predicate, meaning the same thing as the subject, and agreeing with it in case, are,

1st. The verbs *be, become, appear, seem, look;* those denoting *life* or *death, position* or *motion*, &c.; as, By his uncle's death, *he* became *Earl* of Rothsay. *She* seemed a *child* of unusual promise. *He* died a *martyr* to the cause. *He* lived a *hermit* for many years. *He* came a *conqueror*. *He* stood a *hero* in the strife.

2d. The passive of the verbs *name, call, choose, elect, appoint, make, constitute, create, esteem, consider, judge, suppose, reckon*, &c.; as, He was named John. He was *called, chosen, elected, appointed, made, constituted, created* major. After some of these, as also after *appear*, and *seem*, there is generally an ellipsis of the infinitive "to be"; as, He was *esteemed, considered, judged, supposed, reckoned* (*to be*) a good man.

3. Sometimes *as* precedes the noun in the predicate, and the ellipsis may be supplied; as, He was considered as umpire in the matter. He acted as umpire in the matter.

4. Either term or both terms may be nouns, pronouns, phrases, clauses, or sentences; as, *To doubt* is *to rebel*. *To conceal art* is the perfection of art. The first and great object of education is *to discipline the mind*. *To overcome evil with good*, is noble. "*Bear and forbear*," is good philosophy.

MODEL.

I know him to be an honest man.

"I" is the grammatical subject of the clause, and is not modified.
"Know," the grammatical predicate, is directly modified by "him,"

and "him" by the rest of the sentence; so that "know him to be an honest man" is the modified predicate.

"I," a personal pronoun representing the speaker, has the form appropriated to the first person, singular, nominative, and is the subject-nominative of the verb "know."

"Know" is an irregular verb, *know, knew, known;* transitive, having for its object "him" and the rest of the sentence; as, "I know *what*"? Answer — "him to be an honest man." That is, "I know *that he is an honest man.*" Indicative, present; is not varied to agree with its subject in number and person.

"Him" is a personal pronoun, third, singular, masculine, objective, in form; limits the transitive verb "know."

"To be" is an irregular, intransitive verb; infinitive, present (*why?*); limits "him," which is objective case before it as its *subject.*

"An" is an indefinite article, limiting "man"; used instead of *a* before a vowel sound.

"Honest" is an adjective, limiting the noun "man."

"Man" is a noun in the predicate, meaning the same person as "him," and in the same case. It is therefore *predicate-objective* after "to be," as "him" is *subject-objective* before it.

When the abbreviated expression *assuming* the fact, is expanded into a full clause *asserting* it, "man" becomes *predicate-nominative* after "is," because "he" is *subject-nominative* before it.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Write out in full the clausal and phrasal analysis and the verbal parsing of the following sentences, with reasons.*

Homer is called the prince of poets. I am he whom you seek. Who do men say that I am? It must have been he, for he is the leader of the band. William was created duke of Normandy. Whom do you think him to be? He seemed the chief of the party. They to me were a delight. Night has, with great reason, been considered as the astronomer's day. If I recollect rightly, this is called metempsychosis. A gilded insect to the world you seemed. Combat vice in its first attack, and you will come off conqueror. What seemed his head, the likeness of a kingly crown had on. Then, if thou fallest, O Cromwell, thou

fallest a blessed martyr. In the destroyer's steps there spring up bright creations that defy his power, and his dark path becomes a way of light to heaven.

RULE X.

A noun, used to explain another, denoting the same object, is in apposition with it in the same case; as, *Webster*, the great *statesman*, is dead. James, come to *me*, your *teacher*.

NOTE. APPOSITION means *added to*, and the annexed word generally explains, identifies, or describes the other term as to character, official rank, employment, &c.

REMARK 1. The *added term* is generally an abbreviated adjective clause, *assumed*, instead of being asserted by writing it with a relative and verb; as, Webster, *who was* the great statesman, is dead = Webster, the great statesman, is dead. In the first, statesmanship is asserted; in the second, it is assumed.

2. When words are in apposition, either of the terms may be a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence.

1st. A pronoun; as, *We*, his fellow *citizens*, have elected him. *I Darius, king* of Persia, have decreed it. He addressed the letter to *me*, his earliest *friend*. I brought *it*, a *present* from my brother.

2d. A phrase; as, He did it for this *purpose*, to *bring the enemy to terms*. The *promise, to be quiet*, was soon forgotten.

3d. A clause; as, He overlooked the *cause* of his discomfiture, *that his outposts were not sufficiently guarded*.

4th. A sentence; as, "*Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you*": a *command* that is too seldom obeyed. "*Know then thyself*": a *species* of knowledge too little regarded.

3. A word in the plural, used in summing up for perspicuity or emphasis, may be in apposition with the several parts collectively; as, Anger, hatred, revenge, —*feelings* never indulged with impunity, hurried him on to his fate. Anger, hatred, revenge, *all* contributed to his downfall.

4. Words used distributively may be in apposition with a word denoting the whole; as, The great *mass* will soon be scattered, *some* to their merchandise, *others* to their worskshops; a *few*, it may be, to

quiet retirement, and the *rest* to their several pleasures. Two representatives were present, *one* from the nobles, the *other* from the commons. The human species is composed of two distinct *races*, — the *men who borrow*, and the *men who lend*.

NOTE. The added term, whether distributive or modified by a distributive, is in apposition with a plural noun; as, The *men* departed, *each* to his own home. *They* worked well, *each* in his own way. Flee *ye*, *every man*, to his own city.

5. When reciprocal pronouns are in apposition with a word, the first one only is so used; the other has a different regimen, obvious from the construction; as, Boys should help *one* another in doing right = one should help another. They got in *each* other's way = each in the other's way. The men struck *each* other = each struck the other. We love one another = one loves another.

6. When nouns in apposition are in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is added to the last only; as, His brother *John's* book. I bought the book at my friend *Crosby's* store. The parcel was left at his cousin *William's* house.

7. Sometimes, when a pronoun is in the possessive case, a noun in apposition with it may be without the possessive sign; as, A view of the Falls of Niagara is *his* best work, as an *artist*. Such was *his* lamented end, the *scholar*, the *poet*, the *philanthropist*.

8. When a noun is repeated for emphasis, the repeated word may be parsed in apposition with the former; as, The *people*, the *people*, if we are true to them, will carry us, and will carry themselves, gloriously through this struggle. I saw his *corse*, his mangled *corse;* and then I cried for vengeance.

9. When the common and proper names of an object are used together, they are generally in apposition; as, *Lake George*, *King John*, the *steamer Wabash*, the *river Jordan*. Sometimes the preposition *of* is used; as, the *bay* of *Biscay*, the *city* of *London*, the *town* of *Cohasset*, the *state* of *New York*.

NOTE. Proper names, consisting of more than one word, are parsed conjointly as a whole; as, *Daniel Webster*, *William Henry Harrison*. In parsing, it is as needless to separate the words composing a name, as it would be to separate the syllables composing each word.

10. Verbs of naming, &c., are generally followed by two words in

the objective; and, as they denote the same object, the *latter* is often parsed in apposition with the first; as, They called his *name John.* They named the *child John.*

11. Sometimes, when words are in apposition, the added term is preceded by *as*, especially when such term denotes occupation, employment, &c.; as, Washington was unsurpassed as a *patriot* = in the character of a patriot.

MODEL.

Solomon, the builder of the temple of Jerusalem, — the son of David the psalmist, was the richest monarch that reigned over the Jewish people.

One independent clause and one dependent clause, connected by the relative pronoun "that," used here after a superlative, "richest," in preference to "who."

"Solomon," the subject of the first clause, is directly limited by "builder," and by "son," nouns used to explain it, all three denoting the same person.

"Builder" is limited by the phrase "of the temple," "temple" by the phrase "of Jerusalem," — and "son" by the phrase "of David."

"David" is limited by "psalmist," used to explain, denoting the same person as "David."

"Was," the predicate, is limited by "monarch," a noun in the predicate, denoting the same person as the subject; and "monarch" is limited by "richest," an adjective in the superlative degree.

"That," a relative pronoun representing "monarch," is the subject of the adjective clause; "reigned," the predicate of it, is indirectly modified by the phrase "over the Jewish people," and "people" is limited by the adjective "Jewish." Thus "reigned over the Jewish people" is the modified predicate.

BUILDER and SON, common nouns, each applying to any one of its class; third person, spoken of; masculine, male beings; singular, each denoting only one; nominative case, because "Solomon," which each is used to explain, is nominative; meaning the same person as "Solomon," therefore in apposition with it.

PSALMIST is a common noun, any one of a class; third person, spoken of; masculine, a male being; singular, only one; used to ex-

plain or limit "David," meaning the same person, therefore in the objective case, and in apposition with "David."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze the sentences, and parse the words as heretofore.*

Hope, the charmer, lingered still behind. Deem every day of your life a leaf in your history. Thou callest its children a happy band. As a poet, Dr. Johnson cannot claim a station in the first rank. Sleep, image of thy father, sleep, my boy. A sacred band, they take their sleep together. The reputation of Johnson as a philologer, appears to be on the decline. Time, the subtle thief of youth, is stealing away our years. And they made Solomon, the son of David, king. The crumbling tombstone and the gorgeous mausoleum, the sculptured marble and the venerated cathedral, all bear witness to our desire to be remembered. The strong encourage the weak, and all exhort each other to be valiant, and quit themselves like men. Here, in a lonely shealing, by the death-bed of a poor old man, are standing three ministers of God — each of a different persuasion — a Catholic, an Episcopal, and a Presbyter. Content, the offspring of virtue, dwells both in retirement and in the active scenes of life. "Honor thy father and thy mother," the first commandment with promise.

RULE XI.

A noun, used independently is in the nominative case.

NOTE. A pronoun of the first person is sometimes used independently in the objective; as, Ah me! — Me miserable!

REMARK 1. A noun may be used independently: —

1st. By *direct address;* as, Thou, William, still art young. Soldiers, your homes are invaded.

2d. By exclamation; as, O, the *grave!* the *grave!* It buries every error. Poor *Indians!* The light of hope hath ceased to shine on their path. O, the memory of other days!

3d. By redundancy or pleonasm; as, *Assyria, Greece, Rome, Carthage* — what are *they*? Are *they* here — the *dead* of other days? Now *Harry, he* had long suspected this trespass of old Goody Blake.

2. A noun in the nominative by *direct address* is of the second person, and, though grammatically independent as to case-relation in the construction of the sentence, it may be modified in other respects; as, O days of ancient grandeur, are ye gone?

3. A noun in the nominative by *exclamation* is generally of the third person, and, though modified, is independent in construction; as, That then — O, *disgrace* upon manhood! — even then, you should falter.

4. A noun is in the nominative independent by *redundancy* or *pleonasm* when repeated, or when introduced abruptly, while a pronoun representing it, is the subject of the verb; as, The pilgrim fathers — where are they? The people, the people, if we are true to them, will carry us, and will carry themselves, gloriously through this contest.

MODEL.

Soldiers, a powerful army has invaded the country.

"Army," the subject of this sentence, is limited by "powerful" and "a"; and "a powerful army" is the modified subject.

"Has invaded" is directly modified by "country," specifying the object invaded; and "country" is limited, by the definite article "the," to a particular country.

This sentence, complete in itself, asserts a fact.

"Soldiers" represents the persons to whom the thought contained in the sentence is addressed; it has no case-relation to any word in the sentence, and is therefore used independently of it in construction; hence it is in the nominative case.

The indefinite article "a" limits "army"; and the definite article "the" limits "country."

"Powerful" is an adjective, simple form, compared by *more* and *most*, and describes "army."

"Army" is a collective noun, singular, third person, neuter, nominative, and subject of the *verb* "has invaded."

"Has invaded" is a verb, regular in the formation of its principal parts; takes a direct object, therefore transitive; indicative mode, a simple declaration; perfect tense, a finished action; has the special

form assigned to be used in this tense with a subject of the third, singular.

"Soldiers" is a noun; plural, masculine, and second person, *spoken to;* used independently in the nominative case.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse as heretofore, writing out the analysis and parsing.*

O sleep! O gentle sleep! Nature's soft nurse, how have I frighted thee! Columns, arches, pyramids, what are they but heaps of sand? Are they here — the dead of other days? Come, bright improvement, on the car of time. To arms! they come! the Greek, the Greek! Ye dreadless flowers, that fringe the eternal frost. Rise, fathers, rise! It is Rome demands your help. How marked the contrast! how wide the difference! Arm, warriors, arm for fight! Good sir, have patience. Father of earth and heaven, I call thy name. Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition. Yet they went very well together, the kettle and the cricket. The boy! O, where was he? I pledge thee faith, my liege, my lord. At first a small body, they were regarded with indifference and contempt. White man, there is eternal war between me and thee. New England's dead! New England's dead! On every hill they lie. A healthful old man, to whom sleep was sweet, the first sound slumbers of the night held him in their soft but strong embrace. O the mistletoe bough! that hangs in the hall. Roll on, thou deep and dark-blue ocean — roll! Your fathers, where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever?

RULE XII.

A noun, joined with a participle, and not connected in construction with the rest of the sentence, is used independently in the nominative case; as, *Shame being lost,* all virtue is lost.

REMARK. A noun and participle thus used, constitute an abbreviated clause, wherein the fact is *assumed*, or taken for granted, but not asserted; as, *John being sick*, a physician was called = As John was sick, a physician was called. *Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost = *When, as, because*, or *if* shame is lost, &c.

MODEL.

Peace of mind being secured, we may smile at misfortunes.

The abbreviated or contracted clause, "Peace of mind being secured" = *if, when, as, because, since*, &c., "peace of mind is secured."

The clause, "We may smile at misfortunes," is complete in itself, in construction and sense. Therefore the words of the abbreviated clause are used independently.

When the contracted clause is fully expressed, "peace" is the subject, and "is secured" is the predicate.

"We" is the subject of the complete clause; "may smile," the predicate, is limited by the phrase "at misfortunes"; making "may smile at misfortunes" the modified predicate.

PEACE is a common noun, third, neuter, singular, nominative; used independently with the participle "being secured"; it is not connected with the rest of the sentence.

"Being secured" is a participle, imperfect, passive, from the verb "secure"; used in the relation of an adjective, modifying the noun "peace."

"Of" is a preposition, and connects "mind" with "peace," in the relation of a modifying term.

"Mind" is a noun, common, third, singular, neuter (why?); objective, after the preposition "of," which connects the two terms of the relation.

"We" is a personal pronoun, first person, plural, nominative; subject of the verb "may smile."

"May smile" is a regular verb, intransitive, as it cannot take a direct object to limit it; potential mood, declares *possibility* or *permission* by the use of the auxiliary "may"; present tense; verbs in the potential mood are not varied on account of the person and number of the subject.

"At" is a preposition, connecting "misfortunes" with "smile."

"Misfortunes" is a common noun, third, plural, neuter, objective; object of the relation after the preposition "at."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give clausal and phrasal analysis of the sentences, and parse each word, giving kind, form, property, and relation, and reasons for the same.*

The judges having seated themselves, the prisoner was arraigned before them. The general having been slain, the army was soon routed. The storm having passed, the sun shone out bright again. The oration being finished, the people dispersed. The man being dead, the estate was divided among his heirs. Their lessons having been learned, the boys went out to play. Whose gray top shall tremble, he descending. The horses being sufficiently rested, we started again on our journey. No precious fate with mine involved, my heart is fearless, firm my step. William having been deprived of the help of tutors, his studies became totally neglected. Virtue abandoned and conscience reproaching us, we become terrified with imaginary evils. His father dying, he succeeded to the estate. At length, their ministry performed, and race well run, they left the world in peace.

RULE XIII.

The interjection is generally used without grammatical relation; as, Alas! I fear he is ruined.

REMARK. The pronoun *me* is sometimes used independently after an interjection; as, Ah me! Though the ellipsis may be supplied; as, Ah, pity me! Ah, have mercy on me! Ah, what is to become of me! Ah, what is to happen to me! &c.

MODEL.

Ah! gentlemen, that was a dreadful mistake.

The subject of this sentence is "that," a demonstrative pronoun, pointing out a fact before stated, to which the *pleader* alludes, and

which "that" represents. "That" is here used in the relation of a noun in the nominative.

"Was," the predicate, is modified by "mistake," a noun in the predicate in the same case as the subject, and meaning the same thing; therefore "mistake" is the predicate-nominative, as "that" is the subject-nominative. "Mistake" is limited by the adjective "dreadful."

"Gentlemen" is used to denote the persons to whom the proposition is addressed, and is here in the nominative independent by *address*.

The word "Ah" is not connected grammatically with the other words of the sentence, and is used merely to express strong emotion.

AH is an interjection, used independently of other words as to grammatical relations.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse the following sentences, writing them in full.*

Hush! hush! thou vain dreamer! this hour is her last. Hark! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell. Alas! not one memento may ever return for love to cherish. What! shear a wolf! "Pooh!" said the man, "this is altogether too absurd." Eh! what noise is that in the hall? Zounds! fellow, don't wet my room in that manner! Ha! here comes Mr. Paul Pry. "Alas!" she cried, — "alas! my boy, thy gentle grasp is on me — how shall I hence depart?" The hunt's up; we'll be all in at the death; halloo! my boys, halloo! O, save me, Hubert, save me! Alas! what need you be so boisterous rough? Hail! holy Light, offspring of heaven first born!

RULE XIV.

Participles are used in the relations of adjectives and nouns; and, when derived from transitive verbs, take a direct object; as, By *doing* nothing, we learn to do ill. Their bones lie *mouldering* in the dust.

Remark 1. When the participle is limited by an article or an adjective, it cannot take an object, and is followed by a preposition, generally "of"; as, Love is the *fulfilling* of the law.

2. A participle, in the relation of a noun, may be a subject-nominative, a predicate-nominative, the object of a transitive verb, or of a relation by means of a preposition, and yet take a direct object; as, *Striking* a man is *doing* injury to him. In *praising* a man, avoid *injuring* him.

3. When a participle has no obvious dependence on other words in the sentence, being an abbreviated or contracted expression, it is used independently. If the ellipsis be supplied to find the word it limits, the clause is often awkward; as, Generally speaking, he attended to his duty. Supplying the ellipsis, *I*, generally speaking = *speaking in general terms, say that he*, &c.

4. A participle used in the relation of an adjective may limit a noun or its substitute, and yet take a direct object; as, I stood still, watching their motions.

5. "Unknowing," "unknown," &c., were formerly participles; but since the verbs from which they were derived have become obsolete, they are considered as adjectives.

Note. In the expression, "unlooked-for circumstances," the compound word "unlooked-for" may be parsed as an adjective.

MODEL

The gentleman, seeing me, spoke of having settled his affairs.

"Gentleman," the subject, is limited by the article "the," and the participle "seeing" used in the relation of an adjective.

The participle "seeing" is directly limited by the personal pronoun "me," which represents the person speaking, therefore of the first person; objective case after the transitive participle. Thus, "the gentleman, seeing me," is the modified subject.

"Spoke," the predicate, is indirectly limited by the objective phrase, "of having settled his affairs."

"Having settled" takes for its direct object the noun "affairs" in the objective, and "affairs" is limited by "his." Thus, "spoke of having settled his affairs" is the modified predicate, composed of a verb and a limiting phrase.

SEEING is an imperfect participle, active; from the irregular, transitive verb "see"; here used in the relation of an adjective, and limiting "gentleman."

HAVING SETTLED is a compound perfect participle, active; from the regular transitive verb "settle"; used here in the relation of a noun, in the objective after the preposition "of." Both "seeing" and "having settled" retain the power of a verb in taking the objective case after them.

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Give the clausal and phrasal analysis of the following sentences, and parse each word, giving the particulars and the reasons, as in the preceding models.*

Leaning back in his carriage, he was carried along, hardly knowing it was day. Thus disguised, I traverse my native hills, viewing the strength and features of the land, and searching patriot spirits out. You will find his virtues trimly set forth in lapidary lines, and little Cupids dropping upon his urn their marble tears. His death costs not the soiling of one white handkerchief. After all, disciplining and educating your mind must be your own work. If we had disputes about our hunting ground, they were generally settled without the shedding of much blood. Human affairs are in continual motion and fluctuation, altering their appearance every moment, and passing into some new forms. This fallacious art, instead of lengthening life, debars us from enjoying it. The reason of his having acted in the manner he did, was not fully explained. The savages were employed in hunting wild animals.

RULE XV.

A verb without a subject-nominative, preceded by "to," is in the infinitive mood.

NOTE. A verb thus unlimited by number or person may be used in most of the usual relations of the noun except the possessive; or modify a verb, noun, adjective, or adverb, to denote a purpose, object, or result; as, *To excel* is his desire. He *desires* to excel. A *desire* to excel. *Anxious* to excel. He was well *enough* to excel.

REMARK 1. After the active form of the verbs *bid, dare, hear, feel, make, see, let, need,* with their participles, and a few others of similar import, the infinitive sign "to" is commonly omitted; as, He *bade, made, saw,* or *let* me *do* it. *Seeing* the sun *rise* is pleasant. *Bidding* him *go* with speed.

NOTE 1. Some of the verbs of similar import are *behold, observe, perceive, have, know, help,* &c. Euphony alone must determine the use or omission of "to."

2. "To" is sometimes expressed after the above verbs, especially in poetry; as, And dar'st thou then to beard the lion in his den?

2. The infinitive mood may modify or depend on a

Verb; as, He *tried* to run. He *was told* to *try* to run.
Participle; as, *Trying* to run, he fell.
Noun; as, He had a *desire* to run.
Pronoun; as, They desired *him* to run.
Adjective; as, He was *ready* to run.
Adverb; as, He was strong *enough* to run.
Conjunction; as, He was so foolish *as* to run.
Preposition; as, For no purpose *except* to run.

3. The infinitive modifies a noun or pronoun in the objective case, in the relation of its subject, when together they might form the subject and predicate of a clause: as, He commanded the *book* to be brought to him = He commanded *that the book should be brought to him.* I think *him* to be just = I think *that he is just,* or, I think *he is just.*

NOTE 1. It is evident that he did not command the *book;* so that the *object* of "commanded" must be the phrase "the book to be brought to him." In parsing, "book" may be called the *objective* before the infinitive "to be brought"; being used in the relation of a *subject* before the infinitive.

2. That "book" is in the objective case may be seen by putting a pronoun in a similar relation; or it may be seen in an example where the pronoun is used; as, I think *him* to be honest.

3. As such forms of expression may be represented by the conjunction

"that" with the indicative or potential mood, it may be well to consider such *infinitive phrases* as abbreviated clauses, containing *assumed* instead of *asserted* propositions.

4. The objective case, in the relation of a subject of the infinitive, is generally put after verbs and participles denoting the exercise of the *intellectual faculties* or the *external senses*, or the *communication* of *thought* to *others;* as, after *saying, thinking, knowing, commanding, perceiving,* and the like.

4. The infinitive often expresses an action or state *abstractly* as well as indefinitely; as, To live is to act = *Life* is *action.* To be good is to be wise = *Goodness* is *wisdom.*

5. From such examples it is clear that the infinitive, used abstractly, may be either a

SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE; as, *To obey* is proper = *Obeying* is proper = *Obedience* is proper; — or a

PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE; as, To obey is *to enjoy* = To obey is *enjoying* = To obey is *enjoyment;* —

Or BOTH; as, *To obey* is *to enjoy* = *Obeying* is *enjoying* = *Obedience* is *enjoyment.*

NOTE. The infinitive modifies a verb without reference to the kind of action expressed by it, as transitive or intransitive; as, Boys *love* to play. Boys *cease* to play. Boys *seem* to play. Boys *are* to play here in future.

6. The infinitive, either with or without an *objective subject*, may be the subject of a verb; as, *For us to obey* is proper = *That we should obey* is proper = *To obey* is proper for us = *Obedience* is proper for us.

NOTE. When an infinitive with its subject is used as subject of the verb, the preposition "for" often precedes the *objective subject.* In such cases, by transposition of the objective subject, the infinitive is often seen to be used abstractly; as, For her *to die* was gain = *To die* was gain for her = *Death* was gain for her. For him *to study* is desirable = *To study* is desirable for him = *Study* is desirable for him.

7. When the infinitive is used as a subject, and has no antecedent term of relation, it is generally used abstractly. By supplying an ellipsis, the modified term may restrict what before was indefinite or general; as, Goodness is happiness = To be good is to be happy = For *any one* to be good is to be happy = For *me, you, him, her, us, them,* or *anybody* to be good is to be happy.

8. The infinitive often follows *than* after a comparison, *as* after *so*

or *such*, and *too* before an *adjective* or *adverb*, the limited word being omitted; as, He went *so* far *as* to dispute any one. He went to *such* lengths *as* to alienate his friends. He knew *better* than to submit it to the people. He was *too young* to begin the study.

NOTE 1. The infinitive may limit the phrase "too young," which it follows, or the infinitive subject-objective may be supplied; as, *He* was too young *for him* to begin the study.

2. "To go is better than to stay" (*is*); here, by supplying the ellipsis, it is apparent that the infinitive is used in the relation of a *noun*, the subject of "is" implied.

9. The infinitive is sometimes used independently, without the limited term; as, *To confess* the truth, I was in fault = *I* (*anxious, willing, wishing, determined, in order*), to confess the truth, *say that* I was in fault. But supplying such ellipses is sometimes very awkward.

NOTE. When the infinitive is thus used, it is an abbreviated expression for a clause, and it may be changed into a predicate, in the potential mood, after "that"; as, That I may confess the truth, (I say,) I was in fault.

10. In expressing a *purpose, object*, &c., formerly the preposition "for," or the phrase "in order," was used; now neither is used; as, They came *in order* to learn = They came *for* to learn = They came to learn = They came *that they might* learn.

11. The infinitive "to be" is sometimes properly omitted; as, I consider it (*to be*) good. I think him (*to be*) an honest man = I think (*that*) he is an honest man.

NOTE. Here "him" is the subject-objective before the infinitive *implied*, and "man" the predicate-objective after it.

12. The infinitive frequently follows the connectives *how, when, where*, &c.; as, I know *how* to do it. He was told *when* to go, and *where* to go.

NOTE. As is the case after *than, as*, &c., this is caused by ellipsis.

13. The verb is sometimes *improperly* omitted after "to"; as, "He studied, or at least tried to." *Study* should be expressed after "to"; as, "or at least tried to *study*."

14. No word should intervene between the parts of the infinitive mood; as the verb should not be separated from its *infinitive sign*,

when expressed; as, "He determined *to* faithfully *study* his lesson," *should be*, "He determined *to study* his lesson faithfully."

15. When the pronoun "it," as the subject of a sentence, is followed by an infinitive phrase or a clause, in the way of explanation, such phrase or clause is used in the relation of a noun, in apposition with "it"; as, It is presumption in man *to arraign the doings of his Maker.* It is impossible *that man should go through the world without exercising influence.*

MODEL.

I know him to be a good boy, and you may let him go home.

Two independent clauses connected by "and."

"I" is the subject of the first clause, unmodified.

"Know" is the grammatical predicate, and "know him to be a good boy" the modified predicate.

The objective phrase "him to be a good boy" = that he is a good boy.

In parsing the phrase, we regard "him" as in the objective, being the direct object of "know." It may, also, be considered as the subject-objective before the infinitive "to be,"—"boy" being objective after it as a noun in the predicate.

"You" is the subject of the second clause; and "may let," the predicate, is limited by its direct object "him"; and "him," by the verb "go" in the infinitive mood.

"To" is omitted before "go," because it follows "let," and "go" is limited by "home." "Home" sometimes follows a verb of motion, without the preposition.

"To be" is an irregular, intransitive verb, infinitive, present, and has "him" for its subject in the objective case.

"Go" is an irregular, intransitive verb; *go, went, gone;* it is in the infinitive mood, and limits "him."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse the following exercises according to models.*

We should not talk to amuse ourselves, but to please those who hear us. To read numerous volumes in the morning, and to

observe various characters at noon, will leave but little time, except the night, to digest the one or speculate upon the other. To enjoy present pleasure, he sacrificed his future ease and reputation. The man taught me to write. We told him to go. To say the least, they acted imprudently. He came for no other purpose than to weep. To err is human; to forgive, divine. "Sleep is so like death," says Sir Thomas Browne, "that I dare not trust myself to it without prayer." Strive to do faithfully every duty that comes in your way. If thine enemy hunger, give him bread to eat; if he thirst, give him water to drink. To deserve, to acquire, and to enjoy the confidence of mankind, are the great objects of ambition and desire. Education, to accomplish the ends of good government, should be universally diffused. To advise the ignorant, to relieve the weary, and to comfort the afflicted, are duties directly pressing on us. In its hollow tones are heard the thanks of millions yet to be. To prevent a long debate, he yielded to the demand. He bids thee come with speed to help our central battle, for sore is there our need. By learning to obey, you will know how to command. Be slow to promise, and quick to perform. Disputing should always be so managed as to remind us that the only end of it is truth.

RULE XVI.

Conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, and sentences; as, *Two* and *three* are five. A *great* and *good* man has left us. True eloquence must exist *in the man*, *in the subject*, and *in the occasion*. *John walked* and *William rode*.

Remark 1. Conjunctions connect words of the same class in the same relation; as,

1st. Two or more subjects, when the same is asserted of all, or anything of only one of them; as, *John*, *William*, and *Charles* are coming: *John*, *William*, or *Charles* is coming.

2d. Two or more predicates, when all apply to the same subject, or

some one of them applies to the subject; as, Charles *reads, spells,* and *writes.* Charles *reads, spells,* or *writes.*

3d. Two or more nouns limiting the same word; as, A man of *wealth, learning,* and *honesty.*

4th. Two or more adjectives qualifying the same noun; as, A *wealthy, learned,* and *honest* man.

5th. Two or more adverbs modifying the same word; as, He acted *justly, wisely,* and *honorably.*

6th. Two or more verbs without a subject limiting the same word; as, He was *eager* to *go* and *try.*

7th. Two or more prepositions connecting the same limiting noun with a word; as, He was walking *up* and *down* the street, *to* and *from* his house.

8th. Two or more participles belonging to the same word; as, I saw John *laughing* and *talking* with great glee.

2. Conjunctions connect phrases in the same construction; as, He was constantly employed *in hunting up cases of suffering, in relieving present want,* and *in providing against future distress. To ferret out suffering, to relieve want,* and *to provide against distress* were to him imperative duties.

3. Conjunctions connect clauses, sometimes expressing their relation; as, *John came* because *he was sent for.* Here the relation is that of *cause* and *effect.*

4. Conjunctions connect nouns and pronouns in the same case; as, You will see *him* and *me.* I met *John* and *William.*

5. Conjunctions commonly connect verbs in the same mode and tense; as, They *went* and *saw* the man.

6. Conjunctions sometimes connect verbs in different modes and tenses; as, Words *are* like arrows, and *should* not *be shot* at random.

7. Conjunctions connect words of the same or a similar class in the same relation; as, The *great* and *good* man labored *steadily* and *faithfully.* A boy, *diligent* and *trying* to improve, will succeed.

Note. An apparent exception sometimes occurs; as, The boy was not *here,* but *at school. But* connects with the adverb *here,* the phrase *at school,* which is equivalent to the adverb *there,* as, The boy was not *here,* but *there.* Or the ellipsis may be supplied; as, The boy was not here, but he was at school.

8. *That* is sometimes used before a subjective clause or an objective, when it merely expresses the *fact* asserted in the clause; and in such

cases it may often be omitted for euphony; as, I knew *that* he would do it, or I knew he would do it.

9. Prepositions connect words in *different* relations; i. e., the consequent term of relation always limits the antecedent; as, He is a *man* of *wealth*.

But conjunctions, when they connect words, unite *similar* elements having a common dependence; as, A *great* and *good* man.

10. Those connectives which unite dependent clauses to the clauses on which they depend, never connect words.

MODEL.

A temperate man's life passes on calmly and serenely, because it is innocent.

"A temperate man's life" is the modified subject, and "passes on calmly and serenely" is the modified predicate of the first clause.

Here "life," the subject, is limited by "man's," and "man's" by "temperate," restricting the word "life" not only to "man's life," but to the "life" of a "temperate man."

"Passes," the predicate, is modified by the adverbs "on," "calmly, and serenely," showing the manner of the action.

"It" is the subject, and "is" the predicate of the second clause; "innocent," modifying the verb, is an adjective in the predicate, and is here asserted of the subject.

The two clauses are connected by "because," the latter showing the reason.

AND is a conjunction, connecting the adverb "serenely" with "calmly." By supplying the ellipsis, "and" would here connect clauses.

BECAUSE is a conjunction, connecting the two clauses, and showing the relation of *cause* and *effect*.

"Temperate" is an adjective; *temperate, more temperate, most temperate;* simple form, or *positive degree*, and limits the noun "man's."

"Man's" is a name applicable to any one of a class; a male being, denoting one object, spoken of; therefore a *common* noun, third, *singular*, masculine; denoting the *possessor*, and therefore having the form of the *possessive case*. It limits "life."

"Life" is a common noun, third, singular, neuter (*why?*); subject of the verb "passes," and therefore in the nominative.

"Passes" is a regular, intransitive verb, simple active form, indicative, present (*why?*); and has the peculiar termination of the third person singular of this tense, because its subject "life" is *third, singular.*

"On," generally a *preposition,* is here used without a modifying term to limit "passes," and is an *adverb.* If the *noun* "way," or "course," is supplied, its regular function as a preposition will be restored; as, "on its course."

"Calmly" and "serenely" are adverbs, compared by *more* and *most;* in the simple form, and modify the verb "passes," showing the *manner* of the *action.*

"It" is a personal pronoun, representing "life"; hence, *third, singular, neuter;* and nominative case, subject of "is."

"Is," an irregular, intransitive verb, indicative, present, third, singular, to agree in these respects with its subject, having the peculiar form appropriated to this *person* and *number* in the present.

"Innocent" is an adjective, in the predicate, whereby its quality is *asserted* of the subject, instead of being *assumed.*

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse as in preceding exercises.*

Between fame and true honor there is a distinction to be made. As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honor him; but as he was ambitious, I slew him. There is no beauty, or grace, or loveliness, that continueth in man; for this is the end of all his glory and perfection. Ponder again and again on the divine law; for all things are contained therein. If called to shed thy joys, as trees their leaves; if the affections be driven back into the heart, as the life of flowers to their roots; be patient. In founding their colony, the pilgrim fathers sought neither wealth nor conquest, but only peace and freedom. Nay, an thou'lt mouthe, I'll rant as well as thou. Our heavenly Benefactor claims not the homage of our lips, but of our hearts. Words of encouragement pass along from rank to rank, and from lip to lip. He continued his speed so as to run, by about midnight of the same day, as far as

his eager pursuers were two days in reaching. In this place, there was not only security, but an abundance of provisions.

RULE XVII.

A preposition connects a limiting noun or pronoun with the word which it limits, and requires the limiting word to be in the objective case.

NOTE. The preposition shows grammatical, not logical, relation between the connected terms.

REMARK 1. Prepositions connect words of the same or different classes in different relations; as,

1st. A noun limited by a noun; as, A *man* of *wealth* = A wealthy man = A man who is wealthy. The phrase "of wealth" is equivalent to an *adjective*, and so is the relative clause "who is wealthy."

2d. A verb limited by a noun; as, He *studied* with *diligence* = He studied diligently. The phrase "with diligence" is equivalent to an *adverb*.

3d. An adjective limited by a noun; as, *Eager* for *play*.

4th. An adverb limited by a noun; as, John studies diligently *enough* for *success*.

5th. A participle limited by a noun; as, I saw John *running* for *exercise*.

6th. In supplying an ellipsis of the limited word or antecedent term of a relation in poetry, the context is often merely *suggestive*, instead of being *definitive;* as in the following from Byron: —

> But with the breath that fills
> Their mountain-pipe, so fill the mountaineers
> With the fierce native daring which instils
> The stirring memory of a thousand years;
> And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears!

Here supply "But as their ears fill with the breath," (air,) &c. *See last line.*

7th. The great distinction between the *preposition* and the *conjunction* is, that the preposition connects *words* of the *same* or *different* classes

in *different* relations; while the conjunction connects words of the *same* class in the *same* relation. Besides, conjunctions connect *similar* phrases, also clauses and sentences, and this is their peculiar function. Thus prepositions connect *words*, and show the relation between them; conjunctions connect *clauses*, and show relation between them.

NOTE. Prepositions are sometimes used *idiomatically*, without any obvious antecedent term of relation till transposed; as, *For* him to deny it is folly. By transposition, It is folly *for* him to deny it.

MODEL.

Subservient to all these sciences is history, which is a record of facts in every department of knowledge.

The two clauses of this compound sentence are connected by the relative pronoun "which," representing "history." The relative clause is not here *restrictive*, but rather *explanatory*, of "history," the antecedent of "which."

"History" is the subject of the leading clause, and "subservient," an adjective in the predicate, is modified by the phrase "to all these sciences."

"Which" is the subject of the adjective clause; "is" is the predicate, and "record" is a noun in the predicate, meaning the same thing as "which," referring to "history."

"Record" is limited by the phrase "of facts"; "facts" by the phrase "in every department"; and "department" by the phrase "of knowledge."

In the arrangement of the independent clause, the verb "is" precedes its subject, for the purpose of placing "history," the antecedent, as near the relative "which" as possible;—an important principle in *construction*.

"Subservient" is an adjective in the predicate, compared by *more* and *most*, expressing a quality asserted of "history," and limiting the predicate "is."

"To" is a preposition, showing that a modifying relation exists between "sciences" and "subservient," and connecting "sciences" with the word it modifies.

"All" is an adjective pronoun, plural, and modifies "sciences."

"These" is a demonstrative adjective pronoun, plural number, and

modifies "sciences," pointing out particular *sciences* previously mentioned.

"Sciences" is a noun; third, plural, neuter (*why?*); objective after the preposition "to."

"Is," an irregular, intransitive verb, indicative, present, has the particular form of the third, singular, as it is varied to agree with its subject-nominative "history."

"History" is a common noun, third, singular, nominative, subject of "is" (*why?*).

"Which" is a relative pronoun, substituted for "history," and representing it in person and number; therefore third, singular; nominative case, and subject of the verb "is."

"Is," parsed as the preceding "is," agrees with its subject-nominative "which."

"A" is an indefinite article, limiting "record."

"Record" is a common noun, third, singular, neuter (*why?*); predicate-nominative after the verb "is," meaning the same thing as "which," the subject-nominative before it.

"Of" is a preposition, connecting "facts," the limiting term, with "record," the word limited.

"Facts" is a noun, third, plural, neuter, objective after the preposition "of" (*why?*).

"In" is a preposition, connecting "department" with "facts" in the relation of a limiting word.

"Every" is an adjective pronoun; distributive, because it refers to objects taken separately; it limits "department."

"Department" is a noun, common, third, singular, neuter (*why?*); objective case, the consequent term of the relation, after the preposition "in."

"Of" is a preposition, connecting "knowledge" with "department," the noun that it limits.

"Knowledge" is a noun, third, singular, neuter, objective after the preposition "of" (*why?*).

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Write out in full, with reasons, the clausal and phrasal analysis, and the verbal parsing of the following sentences.*

He has no reason to complain of fortune; and his country has placed him on a level with the highest in respect to honors. In

the pauses of the gale, the mariner hears the voices of his children at their sports in his distant home. God has drawn the lines of beauty and grandeur, with a pencil that never errs, on the framework of the hills and valleys, on cliff and stream, on sky and earth. In youth the habits of industry are most easily acquired. Graceful in youth are the tears of sympathy, and the heart that melts at the tale of woe. The path of piety and virtue, pursued with a firm and constant spirit, will assuredly lead to happiness. Philip found difficulty in managing the Athenians, from the nature of their dispositions; but the eloquence of Demosthenes was the greatest obstacle to his designs. All finery is a sign of littleness. Manhood is disgraced by the consequences of neglected youth. Instead of our being critics on others, let us employ our criticism on ourselves.

RULE XVIII.

Pronouns must be of the same person, number, and gender as the nouns which they represent; as, *Henry* recited to *his* teacher. *Anna* recited to *her* teacher. *Henry* and *Anna* recited to *their* teacher. *Thou, William*, still art young. *You* and *I* will go and see the *boy*, for *we* know *him*.

Remark 1. Two or more singular nouns, so connected as to be used jointly, are represented by a *plural* pronoun; as, Virtue and vice have *their* reward.

2. If the singular nouns so connected denote the same object, the pronoun must be *singular*; as, This great statesman and patriot has passed to *his* final rest.

3. When the singular nouns are so connected that each is taken separately, or one to the exclusion of others, the pronoun is *singular*; as, John or William will bring *his* book. Neither John nor William will bring *his* book. John, not William, will bring *his* book.

4. When one of the nouns is plural, the pronoun must be plural; as, neither John nor his playmates could recite *their* lessons.

5. When either of the words is of the first person, the pronoun rep-

resenting it must be of the *first* person; but when the first person is not used, and one of the words is of the second person, the pronoun must be of the *second* person; as, You and I have recited *our* lessons. You and John have recited *your* lessons.

6. When the singular nouns are preceded by a distributive, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, or *no*, the pronoun must be *singular;* as, Each man and each boy did *his* duty.

NOTE 1. In general, whenever two or more words are so connected, as subjects, that they require a plural verb, they should be represented by a *plural* pronoun; if a singular verb, by a *singular* pronoun.

2. The same rule is to be observed with a collective noun, according as it implies *unity* or *plurality*.

7. Relative pronouns, though not varied in form to represent their antecedents, yet require verbs and pronouns agreeing with them to be so varied as to correspond and agree with these antecedents; as, You and I, who *were* present with *our* sleds, began to coast.

8. A noun used figuratively requires the pronoun to agree with it in gender, in the figurative sense; as, Next Anger rushed, *his* eyes on fire, &c.

9. Though the relative follows the person and number of its antecedent, yet it is independent of it in construction.

10. "It" is often used indefinitely, to introduce a sentence or clause having no antecedent expressed; sometimes it represents the topic of discourse, and is really redundant, having in apposition with it a clause or infinitive phrase, as the real subject of the verb; as, It is pleasant to see the sun = To see the sun is pleasant. Here "to see the sun" is really the subject, though "it" stands in that relation, having the infinitive phrase in apposition with it. It was evident that he understood the subject = That he understood the subject, was evident. Here, again, the *clause* may be parsed as in apposition with the introductory pronoun "it." By omission of "it," and transposition, the clause becomes the grammatical subject of the verb "was."

MODEL.

Mary must call on the boy who was injured, as she knows him.

This sentence consists of three clauses; the two first connected by the relative "who." The relative clause is here restrictive, and is used

in the relation of an adjective, limiting the noun "boy," which the relative "who" represents.

"As" connects the causal clause with the independent.

"Mary" is the subject; "must call," the predicate, is indirectly limited by "boy," connected with "call" by the preposition "on." Thus, "must call on the boy" is the modified predicate.

"Who" is the subject of the relative clause, and "was injured" is the predicate.

"She" is the subject of the causal clause, "knows" is the predicate, and "knows him" is the modified predicate.

WHO is a relative pronoun, and represents "boy," its antecedent, in person and number; therefore third, singular; nominative case, subject of "was injured."

SHE is a personal pronoun representing "Mary," and of the same person, gender, and number; therefore third, singular, feminine; nominative case, subject of the verb "knows."

HIM is a personal pronoun, and represents "boy," its antecedent, in person, number, and gender; therefore third, singular, masculine; objective case, and limits the transitive verb "knows."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse as heretofore.*

The pupil had studied his lesson, and the teacher was ready to hear him recite it. Our Father, who art in heaven, hallowed be thy name. The boy was anxious that his parents should declare their approval of his conduct. Hope smiled, and waved her golden hair. Sport leaped up and seized his beechen spear. Father and I stopped on account of the shower, but when it was over, we started again on our journey. John and James took their skates with them, and on their way to the pond they called for me. Either Henry or William will call for Mary, and he can bring her the book. Each of these two authors has his merit. Hatred or revenge deserves censure, wherever it is found to exist. Christ applauded the liberality of the poor widow, whom he saw casting her two mites into the treasury. Thou, Lord, who hast permitted affliction to come upon us, wilt deliver us from it in due time.

RULE XIX.

A relative pronoun connects the adjective clause of which it is a part, with another clause which it modifies; as, I have seen the man *who* bought our horse.

REMARK 1. The relative clause may be *restrictive;* as, Every teacher must love a boy who is attentive and docile.

Or it may be *explanatory;* as, Behold the emblem of thy state in flowers, which bloom and die.

Or it may express an *additional circumstance* respecting the antecedent; as, They made the long journey in covered carts, which served also for lodgings by night.

NOTE 1. Instead of *which*, we may substitute, in the last example, "and they," or "and the carts" served, &c.

2. In each of these instances, the relative clause is an adjective.

2. *What*, and the compound relative pronouns, generally represent two cases, as they contain in themselves both antecedent and relative, being equivalent to two words, and thus forming a part of two clauses; as, I know *what* he sent = I know *that* (*the thing*, or *things*), *which* he sent.

3. These pronouns are chiefly used when the antecedent is *general* or *indefinite*, and they thus perform the office of two nouns: I saw *that which* he brought.

4. When an antecedent is expressed, these pronouns perform the office of an *adjective pronoun* in the antecedent clause, and of a *noun* in the adjective clause: He sent *whatever* books he had.

MODEL.

Whoever wishes to excel must study diligently.

The two clauses of this sentence are connected by the compound relative pronoun "whoever," equivalent to "he who" in this case, as is indicated by the singular form of the verb "wishes"; as, "He must study diligently who wishes to excel."

The relative clause "who wishes to excel" is used in the relation of an adjective, limiting the pronoun "he," and restricting it to a particular class of persons.

"Whoever," in its antecedent capacity, is the subject of the independent clause "must study diligently"; in its office as a relative, it is the subject of the dependent clause "wishes to excel."

"Whoever" is a compound relative pronoun, including both antecedent and relative; third, singular, nominative, subject of "must study" in the one clause, and "wishes" in the other.

"Wishes" is a regular verb; simple active; indicative, present (*why?*); it is third, singular, to agree with its subject "whoever."

"Excel" is a regular verb; simple active; infinitive, present (*why?*); used to denote a purpose, and limits "wishes."

"Must study" is a regular verb; potential mood, used with the auxiliary *must* to declare *necessity;* present tense; not varied by the person and number of its subject.

"Diligently" is an adverb of manner, compared by *more* and *most;* simple form, and modifies "must study."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse as in the foregoing models.*

The shepherd, who had given the alarm, had lain down again on the summit of the precipice. Our proper bliss depends on what we blame. Adversity is the mint in which God stamps upon us his image and superscription. Riches bless that heart, indeed, whose almoner is benevolence. Of all that eager and bustling crowd which we behold on earth, how few ever discover the path of true happiness! The forms of those he loves rise before the mariner in the calm moonlight. To impart the secret of what is called good and bad luck, is not a difficult task. The court, which gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary. Commend me to an argument, like a flail, against which there is no fence. They are now engaged in a study, the usefulness of which they have long wished to know. He who formed the heart, certainly knows what passes within it. How happy are the virtuous, who can rest under the protection of that powerful arm which made the earth and the heavens. There are principles in man which ever have inclined, and which ever will incline, him to offend. Whatever we do secretly, shall be displayed in the clearest light.

RULE XX.

Connective adverbs connect clauses, and show relation of time, place, manner, or cause; as, James will go *when* William comes. I will go *where* John goes. I will see *how* John does it. I will know *why* John does it.

Remark 1. The adverbial clause in which the connective stands, limits some word in the clause on which it depends; as, He saw me *when* he was here. In this sentence the adverbial clause limits "saw," the predicate of the independent clause.

2. When the clause in which a connective adverb stands, is the direct object of a transitive verb in the independent clause, it is *objective;* as, I know not *why he did it.* I sent him to learn *how you did it.*

3. When the clause in which a connective adverb stands is the subject of the independent clause, or in apposition with the subject, it is a *subjective* clause; as, *Where he went* is obvious. It is obvious *where he went. Why he did so* is a mystery.

4. Generally, a clause connected with another by a connective adverb is an adverbial clause, limiting some word in the clause with which it is connected.

5. Adverbial phrases, especially correlatives or corresponding phrases, connect clauses; as, The longer he stays away, *the better* it will be for us.

6. *So* is often used to connect clauses, in the sense of *provided, provided that,* or *if;* as, *So* he does it well, there will be little fault found.

7. The following are some of the adverbs most commonly used to connect clauses: —

Of *manner;* as, how, however. Of *time;* after, as, before, ere, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst, and the *phrases* as soon as, as long as, &c. Of *place;* whence, where, whenever, whither, withersoever, and the *phrases* as long as, as far as, &c. Of *cause;* as, since, whereas, why, wherefore, &c.

MODEL.

I know not where you will find authority to ask why John went away when he was most needed.

This sentence contains four clauses — one independent, and three dependent.

"I" is the subject of the leading clause; "know," its predicate, is modified by the adverb "not," and has for its object the objective clause "where you will find authority to ask."

The transitive verb "ask" takes for its object the objective clause "why John went away."

"Went," the predicate, is limited by the adverbial clause "when he was most needed."

"I" is a personal pronoun, first, singular, nominative, the subject of "know."

"Know" is an irregular, transitive verb; indicative, present, not varied to agree in number and person with its subject.

"Not" is an adverb, modifying "know," and thus making the whole proposition *negative*.

"Where" is a connective adverb, connecting the objective clause with "know," which it limits.

"You" is a personal pronoun, second person, singular or plural, nominative, subject of "will find."

"Will find" is a verb; irregular, transitive; simple active; indicative, future; not varied in this tense by person and number.

"Authority" is a common noun, third, singular, neuter, objective, and limits the transitive verb "will find," as its direct object.

"To ask" is a regular, transitive verb, having for its direct object the objective clause "why John, &c."; infinitive, present, and depends on "authority," the noun that it limits.

"Why" is a connective adverb, connecting the clause in which it stands with that which it limits.

"John" is a proper noun; third, singular, masculine, nominative (*why?*); subject of "went."

"Went" is an irregular, intransitive verb; indicative, past; not varied in this tense on account of the person and number of its subject.

"Away" is an adverb, modifying "went."

"When" is a connective adverb, connecting the adverbial clause with the objective clause that precedes it, and showing the relation of time between them to be identical.

"He" is a personal pronoun, third, singular, masculine, and represents "John"; nominative, subject of "was needed."

"Was needed" is a regular, passive verb; indicative, past, third, singular, to agree with its subject.

"Most" is an adverb; *much, more, most;* superlative degree, and modifies "was needed."

EXERCISES.

DIRECTION. *Analyze and parse the following sentences as in the models.*

When thou goest forth by day, my bullet shall whistle by thee; when thou liest down at night, my knife is at thy throat. The pilgrim fathers asked but for a region where they could make their own laws, and worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences. While there is life there is hope. While the earth remaineth, seed time and harvest, cold and heat, summer and winter, and day and night shall not cease. Whenever he sees me, he inquires concerning his friends. The good man is not overcome by disappointment when that which is mortal dies, when that which is mutable begins to change, and when that which he knew to be transient passes away. The refreshment came in seasonably, before they had lain down to rest. Whether virtue promotes our interest or not, we must adhere to her dictates. I will inform you as soon as I hear of his arrival. He was about fifty years old, as nearly as I can judge. Hatred or revenge deserves censure, wherever it is found to exist. Mayest thou, as well as I, be patient and forgiving. Conscience remonstrates while we are doing wrong. Conscience reproaches us after we have done wrong. Wherever hope went, he diffused around him gladness and joy. While Hope remains there can be no full and positive misery.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

In the preceding pages, the various relations of words, phrases, and clauses have been treated of, and exemplified by models.

We have seen that one word may be substituted for another, and may thus represent it; and that the same word may be used in the relations of different classes; as, a pronoun for a noun, a participle for a noun or an adjective, and yet perform the office of a verb in taking a direct object. All this requires no change of meaning in the words thus used.

It now remains to remark, that, as words are classed chiefly by their grammatical office, the same word may be found in several classes; as, The *calm* shade shall bring a kindred *calm*. *Calm* yourself. *That* man sings. The same man *that* sings, plays on the organ. I told him *that* he must go. William not only insulted, he *even struck* the boy. *Even William*, who usually recites well, failed in his lesson.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

Three deviations from regular construction or arrangement are of frequent occurrence in discourse.

Ellipsis is the omission of some part of a sentence, necessary to complete the grammatical construction; as, I bought the book at Crosby's (*store*). He is older than John (*is*).

Most compound sentences afford examples of the use of ellipsis for precision and euphony; it frees language from useless and unpleasant repetition.

Ellipsis should not be used where it will cause obscurity or weaken the force of expression.

Pleonasm, meaning a redundancy of words, is often found in animated discourse, to introduce a subject, to call attention to a coming remark, or to increase emphatic force; as, The Pilgrim *Fathers* — where are they? The people, *the people*, sir, if we

are true to them, will carry us and will carry themselves gloriously through this contest.

It is also used sometimes to render the style more familiar.

> Now *Harry*, *he* had long suspected
> This trespass of old Goody Blake,—

HYPERBATON is an inversion of the natural arrangement of words in a sentence; as, Great is Diana of the Ephesians!

It is most frequent in poetry; as,

> Bright in her father's hall
> Shields gleamed upon the wall;
> Loud sang the minstrels all.—

RHETORICAL FIGURES OF MOST COMMON OCCURRENCE IN DISCOURSE.

An authorized departure from the use of words is called a *trope*.

A simple trope is founded on a similarity of properties.

Simple tropes are divided into the synecdoche and metonymy.

SYNECDOCHE is the use of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part; as *sail* for ships.

METONYMY is a change of name. It gives one object the name of another from some real or fancied relation: An address to the *crown* = the king. *Gray hairs* for old age.

PERSONIFICATION is imputing life or intellect to inanimate objects: Next *Anger* rushed, *his* eyes on fire, &c. We say of the sun, *he* shines — of the moon, *she* shines.

SIMILE or comparison is founded on the resemblance of things compared; introduced by *like, so, as:* Life is *like* a sea; as fathomless, as wide, as terrible.

METAPHOR recognizes the same resemblance, without the introductory words:

Unkind feeling, if it exist, alienation and distrust, are the growth, unnatural to such soils, of false principles since sown. They are weeds, the seeds of which that same great arm never scattered.

ANTITHESIS is the contrasting of expressions, for strength.

Though black, yet comely; though rash, benign.

Vision is that figure by which scenes absent in time or space are regarded as present. I see it now, that one adventurous vessel, the Mayflower of a forlorn hope, &c.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing discourse by certain marks, to show, primarily, the grammatical construction; and, secondarily, to indicate pauses, or modulations of the voice in reading.

The principal punctuation marks are the following, viz.: —

Comma . . . . . ,	Period . . . .
Semicolon . . . . . ;	Interrogation mark . . . ?
Colon . . . . . :	Exclamation mark . . . !

SEPARATION OF CLAUSES.

RULE 1. A complete declarative or imperative sentence, whether simple or compound, takes a period after it.

Ex. Man is mortal. William, come here.

2. An interrogative sentence takes a mark of interrogation after it.

Ex. Who discovered America?

3. An exclamatory sentence takes a mark of exclamation after it.

Ex. What sighs have been wafted after that ship!

SEPARATION OF CLAUSES.

4. The independent clauses of a compound sentence are separated by the semicolon.

Ex. Wake from your false security; your cruel dangers, your more cruel apprehensions, are soon to be renewed; the wounds, yet unhealed, are to be torn open again.

REMARK. If the clauses are short and not subdivided, a comma is often used.

Ex. William went to Boston, and John remained at home.

5. Clauses, having a common dependence, are separated from each other by the semicolon.

6. Dependent clauses are separated from the clauses on which they depend, by the comma.

Ex. I knew, that he told the truth. When the farmer came down to breakfast, he declared, that his watch had gained half an hour, in the night.

EXCEPTION. An adjective clause, when used restrictively, is not separated from the clause on which it depends.

Ex. Never be ungrateful to one who loads you with benefits.

7. A dependent clause, incorporated in the clause on which it depends, commonly takes a comma before as well as after it.

Ex. The people, if we are true to them, will carry us gloriously through this struggle.

8. Correlative clauses are separated by the comma.

Ex. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.

EXCEPTION. If the correlative clauses are connected by "than" or "as," the comma is omitted.

Ex. He asked more than it was worth. Such men as they are never prosper.

9. The omission of the predicate in one or more of the clauses of a compound sentence is marked by a comma.

Ex. Reading makes a full man; writing, a correct man; and speaking, a ready man.

SEPARATION OF PHRASES.

10. Phrases, having a common dependence, and not subdivided, are separated by a comma.

Ex. He is a man of learning, of profound thought, and of character.

Remark. If either of the phrases is subdivided by a comma, they are separated by a semicolon.

Ex. Let him draw, rather, a decorous, smooth-faced, bloodless demon; a picture in repose, rather than in action.

11. Phrases, used in apposition with words, are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Ex. Washington, the first president of the United States, was called the father of his country.

PHRASES.

12. Phrases used absolutely are separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma.

Ex. To confess the truth, I was in fault.

13. A phrase, consisting of an adjective or participle indirectly limited, is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

14. Inverted and intermediate phrases require the use of the comma, when its omission would leave their dependence doubtful.

In every period of life, the acquisition of knowledge is one of the most pleasing employments of the human mind.

The acquisition of knowledge, in every period of life, is one of the most pleasing employments of the human mind.

SEPARATION OF WORDS.

15. Two words of the same class, in the same construction, are separated by a comma when the connecting word is omitted.

Ex. A bold, bad man.

16. Three or more words of the same class, in the same construction, require a comma between each particular.

Ex. Our purpose is higher, purer, nobler. William, John, and Thomas were present.

17. Words, used independently, or modifying whole clauses, are separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma.

Ex. Sir, there is no longer any room for hope. First, I shall

speak of the importance of obedience. The boy recites very well, indeed.

NOTE. This rule applies to such words as "yea," "nay," "further," "again," &c., and to such inseparable adverbial phrases as "in vain," "in general," &c.

OTHER MARKS USED IN WRITTEN LANGUAGE.

The Apostrophe (') is used as a sign of the possessive case; as, John's horse.

Also to note the elision of letters or syllables from some part of a word, chiefly in poetry; as, —

1st. From the *beginning* of a word, when it is called *aphæresis;* as, 'neath for *beneath*, and 'gan for *began.*

2d. From the *middle* of a word, where it is called *syncope* (*syn'co-pe*); as, ne'er for *never*, e'en for *even.*

3d. From the end of a word, where it is called *apocope* (*apoc'o-pe*); as, tho' for *though.*

If the word elided is joined to another, making but one syllable out of two, it is called *synæresis;* as, 'twere for *it were*, th' old for *the old.*

Diæresis (¨) separates, in spoken language, two vowels joined in written; as, *coöperate.*

The Hyphen (-) connects compound words, as after-growth; denotes a long vowel, as nāme; and is used at the end of a line when part of the word begins the next line; as, *run-ning.*

The Dash (—) marks a sudden turn in sentiment, an abrupt breaking off unfinished, a sign for a lengthened pause, and an addition to a common pause.

A Parenthesis ( ) encloses a remark, useful to the sense, but not necessary to the grammatical construction; as, —

> Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
> Virtue alone is happiness below.

Brackets [ ] enclose words used in explanation, or correction of a mistake, but not entering into the construction; as, Punc-

tuation [it is the adjustment of points] ought to be regarded as an important part of grammar.

The Brace (⏞) connects a number of words with one common term; it also marks a triplet in poetry; as, —

I is the first person,
Thou, the second person,
He, she, it, the third person,
} Singular.

O, wretched impotence of human mind!
We, erring, still excuse for error find,
And darkling grope, not knowing we are blind.
}

The Ellipsis (——) indicates the omission of letters or words; as, The k—g for the *king*. They were attacked by ——

The Inverted Commas (" ") mark a quotation; as, Note this line of Pope, —

" The proper study of mankind is man."

The Caret (∧) is used where omitted letters or words are inserted over the line in writing; as, *comand.*
m
∧

The Asterisk (*), Obelisk (†), Parallels (‖), sundry other figures, also the digits and letters of the alphabet, are used as marginal references, or refer to the bottom of the page.

The Breve (˘) is placed over a short vowel to note its quantity; as, *nŏt.*

The Acute Accent (′) marks syllabic emphasis; as, *Im-prop′er.*

USE OF CAPITALS.

Begin with a capital, —

1st. The first word of a sentence; as, Life is short.

2d. Proper names and words derived from them; as, England, English; Spain, Spanish, Spaniard.

3d. Names applied to the Deity; as, God, Jehovah, The Almighty.

4th. Names of the months, and the days of the week; as, August, Sunday.

5th. Names of public bodies: The Senate. The Peace Society.

6th. Names of religious denominations: Presbyterians; Methodists.

7th. Names of political parties: Republicans; Democrats.

8th. Names of corporations and companies; as, Merchants' Bank; Atlantic Telegraph Company.

9th. All titles; as, Gen., Esq., Mr., Rev.

10th. A direct quotation; as, "They said, 'Never man spake like this man.'"

11th. The principal words in the titles or divisions of discourse or of books; as, Tower's Elements of Grammar; Examples for Analysis.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of quantity, accent, and versification.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement in verse of a number and variety of syllables, according to the laws of rhythm.

A VERSE is composed of feet, arranged according to measure or metre.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the final sound or sounds of one verse with that or those of another.

A *line* of poetry is called a *verse.*

A *hemistich* is a broken line.

A *stanza* is a number of verses so arranged as to make one correspondent whole. It commonly has four, six, eight, or nine lines.

A *foot* is two or three syllables, forming the essential part of verse, arranged by accent and the want of it, answering to long and short quantity.

A *pause* or *cæsura* is a suspension of voice at the end of a line, to indicate its termination, or in some part of it for harmony.

Scanning is separating verse into poetic feet.

Of the eight kinds of poetic feet, four have two syllables, and four three syllables; as, —

TWO SYLLABLES.

Iambus, — *unaccented* — *accented*, — despise′.
Trochee, — *accented* — *unaccented*, — trai′tor.
Spondee, — *accented* — *accented*, — pale′ cheek′.
Pyrrhic, — *unaccented* — *unaccented*, — on the.

THREE SYLLABLES.

Anapest, — *two unaccented* — *accented*, — intervene′.
Dactyl, — *accented* — *two unaccented*, — pos′sible.
Amphibrach, — *unaccented* — *accented* — *unaccented*, — delight′ful.
Tribrach, — *three unaccented*, — *nu′* | merable.

Of these the Iambus, Trochee, Anapest, and Dactyl are the most in use; the others serve to vary the measure.

Iambic verse has the accent on the second, the fourth, &c.; that is, on the even syllables.

Verse consisting of one Iambus is called Iambic Monometer; it is seldom used alone; as, —

He flies′;
He dies′.
And bright′
The light′.

Verse consisting of two Iambuses is called Iambic Dimeter; as, —

What place′ | is here′!
What scenes′ | appear′!
To me′ | the rose′
No lon′ | ger glows′.

With rav′ | ished ears′
The mon′ | arch hears′
Assumes′ | the god′,
Affects′ | to nod′.

Verse consisting of three Iambuses is called Iambic Trimeter; as, —

Aloft′ | in aw′ | ful state′,
The god′ | like he′ | ro sate′.
The song′ | began′ | from Jove′,
Who left′ | his seats′ | above′.

Verse consisting of four Iambuses is called Iambic Tetrameter; as, —

A Gre′ | cian youth′, | of tal′ | ents rare′,
Whom Pla′ | to's phil′ | osoph′ | ie care′
Had formed′ | for Vir′ | tue's no′ | bler view′,
By pre′ | cepts and′ | exam′ | ple too′,
Would oft′ | en boast′ | his match′ | less skill′
To curb′ | the steed′ | and guide′ | the wheel′.

Verse consisting of five Iambic feet is called Iambic Pentameter, or Heroic.

Achil′ | les' wrath′, | to Greeee′ | the dire′ | ful spring′
Of woes′ | unnum′ | bered, heaven′ | ly god′ | dess, sing′!

The seas′ | shall waste′, | the skies′ | in smoke′ | decay′,
Rocks fall′ | to dust′, | and moun′ | tains melt′ | away′.

Verse of six feet is called Hexameter; as, —

To scourge′ | the reb′ | el world′, | and mareh′ | it round′ | about′.

Verse consisting of seven Iambic feet is called Iambic Heptameter; as, —

While shep′ | herds watched′ | their flocks′ | by night′, | all seat′ | ed on′ | the ground′,
The an′ | gel of′ | the Lord′ | came down,′ | and glo′ | ry shone′ | around′.

But each of these lines is generally printed as two, and the four lines thus formed constitute a stanza, or verse of a hymn; this is called *Common Metre*.

While shep′herds watched′ their flocks′ by night′,
All seat′ed on′ the ground′,
The an′gel of′ the Lord′ came down′,
And glo′ry shone′ around′.

The Trochaic verse has the accent on the first, the third, &c.; that is, on the odd syllables.

Verse consisting of one Trochee is called Trochaic Monometer; as, —

Fly′ing,
Cry′ing.

This monometer, and all other measures of Trochaic verse, may take an accented semipede or half-foot, and this is the shortest Trochaic verse used in English; as, —

Tu'mult | cea'se',
Sink' to | pea'ce'.
Can' our | eyes'
Reach' thy | size'?
May' my | lays'
Swell' with | praise'
Wor'thy | thee',
Wor'thy | me'!

Verse consisting of two Trochees is called Trochaic Dimeter; as, —

On' the | moun'tain,
By' a | foun'tain.

With the accented half-foot, —

In' the | days' of | old',
Fa'bles | plain'ly | told'.

Verse consisting of three Trochees is called Trochaic Trimeter; as, —

When' our | hearts' are | mourn'ing.

With the accented half-foot.

Rest'less | mor'tals | toil' for | nought';
Bliss' in | vain' from | earth' is | sought';
Bliss', a | na'tive | of' the | sky',
Nev'er | wan'ders: | mor'tals, | try'!
There' you | can'not | seek' in | vain',
For' to | seek' her | is' to | gain'.

Verse consisting of four Trochees is called Trochaic Tetrameter; as, —

There' he | sang' of | Hi'a | wa'tha,
Sang' the | song' of | Hi'a | wa'tha.

Verse consisting of five Trochees is called Trochaic Pentameter; as, —

All′ who | dwell′ in | pal′a | ces′ or | gar′rets.

Verse consisting of six Trochees is called Trochaic Hexameter. It is the longest Trochaic measure found in English; as, —

On′ a | moun′tain | stretched′ be | neath′ a | hoar′y | wil′low.

NOTE. The tetrameter and the pentameter are uncommon and unpleasing, lacking harmony.

The Anapestic verse is composed of Anapests, with sometimes an additional unaccented syllable.

Verse consisting of one Anapest is called Anapestic Monometer; as, —

But in vain′
They complain′.

Verse consisting of two Anapests is called Anapestic Dimeter; as, —

But his cour′ | age 'gan fail′,
For no arts′ | could avail′.

With the unaccented half-foot.

But his cour′ | age 'gan fail′ | him,
For no arts′ | could avail′ | him.

Verse consisting of three Anapests is called Anapestic Trimeter; as, —

O ye woods′, | spread your branch′ | es apace′;
To your deep′ | est recess′ | es I fly′;
I would hide′ | me with beasts′ | of the chase′;
I would van′ | ish from ev′ | ery eye′.

With the unaccented half-foot.

And Sir Trus′ | ty shall be′ | my Ado′ | nis.

Verse consisting of four Anapests is called Anapestic Tetrameter; as, —

May I gov′ | ern my pas′ | sions with ab′ | solute sway′,
And grow wis′ | er and bet′ | ter as life′ | wears away′.

With the unaccented half-foot.

On the cold′ | cheek of death′ | smiles and ro′ | ses are blend′ | ing.

Of Dactylic verse, the following are specimens: —

Dactylic Monometer; as, —

Vis′ible,
Ris′ible.

The Dactylic Dimeter; as, —

Once′, as I | told′ in glee
Tales′ of the | storm′y sea,
Soft′ eyes did | gaze′ on me.

The Dactylic Trimeter: —

Sum′mer is | come′, and the | trees′ on the —

The Dactylic Tetrameter: —

Cold′ is thy | heart′, and as | fro′zen as | char′ity.

Trimeter, with part of a foot more: —

Hail′ to the | chief′ who in | tri′umph ad | vances;
Hon′ored and | blessed′ be the | ev′er green | pine!

AMPHIBRAIC VERSE.

Amphibraic verse is composed of Amphibrachs, and is of three kinds.

Verse consisting of one Amphibrach is called Amphibraic Monometer.

Disdain′ing,
Consent′ing,
Complain′ing,
Repent′ing.

Verse consisting of two Amphibrachs is called Amphibraic Dimeter; as, —

Consid'er, | fond shep'herd,
How fleet'ing's | the pleas'ure;
The joys' which | attend' it
By mo'ments | we meas'ure.

Verse consisting of three Amphibrachs is called Amphibraic Trimeter; as,

And mar'riage | so blest' on | the throne' is.

MIXED HEROIC VERSE.

The Mixed Heroic verse is composed of Spondees, Pyrrhics, Dactyls, and Tribrachs, mixed chiefly with Iambuses; to which the Trochee and the Anapest may be added. Thus mixed, Heroic verse may embrace all the eight feet, except the Amphibrach, at the will of the poet. There should be at least one Iambus in the line.

In the following line of Mixed Heroic measure, the first foot is a Dactyl, the other feet are Iambic.

Mur'muring | and with' | him fled' | the shades' | of night'.

In the following line, the second foot is a Tribrach; the other feet are Iambic.

Innu' | merable | before' | th' Almigh' | ty's throne'.

In the following line, the first foot is a Trochee, the other feet are Iambic.

See' the | bold youth' | strain up' | the threat' | 'ning steep'.

The following line is pure Iambic.

Which on' | weak wings' | from far' | pursues' | her flight'.

In each of the three following lines, the first foot is a Trochee; the rest are Iambic.

Rea′son | the card′, | but pas′ | sion is′ | the gale′.

Fa′vors | to none′, | to all′ | she smiles′ | extends′;
Oft′ she | rejects′, | but nev′ | er once′ | offends′.

In the following line, the first foot is a Spondee, the fourth a Trochee, the rest Iambic.

All′ these′ | our no′ | tions vain′ | sees′, and | derides′.

In the following line, two Anapests are between two Iambuses.

His axe′ | and his dag′ | ger with blood′ | imbrued′.

In the following line, the first foot is a Trochee, the second an Iambus, the third and fourth Iambuses, the fifth an Amphibrach The verse has eleven syllables.

Gods′ might | behold′ | her, and′ | forget′ | their wis′dom.

In the two following lines, accented and unaccented syllables are skilfully blended. The first foot is a Trochee, the second third, fourth, and fifth Iambuses. The first foot of the second line is a Spondee, the second a Trochee, the last three Iambuses.

On′ the | green bank′, | to look′ | into′ | the clear′
Smooth′ lake′, | which′ to | me seemed′ | an oth′ | er sky′.

In the following lines, the *first verse* contains five Iambic feet; the *second*, two Iambuses, a Pyrrhic, a Spondee, an Iambus; the *third*, five Iambuses; the *fourth*, a Trochee, an Iambus, an Anapest, and two Iambuses.

How charm′ | ing is′ | divine′ | philos′ | ophy′!
Not harsh′, | and crab′ | bed, as | dull′ fools′ | suppose′,
But mu′ | sical′ | as is′ | Apol′ | lo's lute′,
And a | perpet′ | ual feast′ | of nec′ | tared sweets′.

MIXED ALEXANDRINE VERSE.

Iambic Hexameter is called Alexandrine measure, from the fact, that the early romances upon the exploits of Alexander of Macedon, were written in this measure. It is sometimes mixed, like the Heroic.

And, in′ | the low′ | er grove′, | as on′ | the ris′ | ing knoll′,
Upon′ | the high′ | est spray′ | of ev′ | 'ry mount′ | ing pole′,
Those quir′ | isters′ | are perched′ | with man′y | a speck′ | led breast.′

Alack′! | that so′ | to change′ | thee win′ | ter had′ | no power′!

The following line has fourteen syllables, with five accented.

And man′y an am′orous, man′y a hu′morous lay′.

This line is one of the longest in English versification. By the most natural division of its feet, it contains an Iambus and four Anapests. By a different division, it has four Amphibrachs and an Iambus.

And man′ | y an am′ | orous, man′ | y a hu′ | morous lay′.
And man′y | an am′o | rous, man′y | a hu′mor | ous lay′.

In the following line, the first, third, and fourth are Iambic; the second and fifth are Anapests.

Which man′ | y a bard′ | had chant′ | ed man′ | y a day′.

The following verse has a Spondee, an Anapest, an Iambus, and two Anapests.

O'er′ man′ | y a fro′ | zen, man′ | y a fi′ | ery Alp′.

The following verse has an Iambus, three Anapests, and an unaccented half-foot.

For Bath′ | will I speak′, | and I'll make′ | an ora′ | tion.

In the following verse there are five Iambic feet, and a Pyrrhic.

That they′ | would fit′- | ly fall′ | in or′ | dered char′ | acters.

The two following lines have each an Iambus, three Anapests, and an unaccented half-foot.

That when′ | the worn thread′ | of my life′ | is untwist′ | ed,
He still′ | may remem′ | ber that I′ | have exist′ | ed.

Heroic verse is ever of ten or eleven syllables, except in Hemistichs; but it occasionally admits an Alexandrine line of twelve, or even of thirteen syllables.

In the following lines there is a mixture of Heroic and Alexandrine verse, with single and double rhyme. The *first* is Heroic, of eleven syllables; its feet are Trochee, Iambus, two Anapests, and an unaccented half-foot. The *second* is mixed verse; it has one Iambus and three Anapests. The *third* is mixed verse, of thirteen syllables; it is an Anapestic, with an unaccented half-foot. The *fourth* is mixed verse, and contains an Iambus and three Anapests.

Know′ ye | the land′ | where the cy′ | press and myr′ | tle
Are em′ | blems of deeds′ | which are done′ | in their clime′,
Where the rage′ | of the vul′ | ture, the love′ | of the tur′ | tle,
Now melt′ | into sor′ | row, now mad′ | den to crime′ ?

MIXED MINOR VERSE.

Minor verse is neither Heroic nor Alexandrine, having less than ten syllables.

In the following verses, the first foot is a Trochee, the rest Iambic.

Come′ to | the school′- | room, come′ | away′ !

War′ble | his na′ | tive wood′- | notes wild′.

The following verse has an Anapest, and two Iambuses; as,—

And the moun′ | tain blast′ | blew chill′.

The following has two Anapests: —

And the night′ | raven sings′.

Or by a different division it has a Pyrrhic, a Spondee, and an Iambus; as, —

And the | night′ ra′ | ven sings′.

POETICAL PAUSES.

There are two pauses, the final, and cæsural. The final pause, at the close of the verse, marks the measure.

The cæsural pause divides the verse into portions, equal or unequal, which may be two or more.

The final pause preserves the structure and melody of the verse without marring the sense. It distinguishes poetry from prose, especially in blank verse.

The cæsural pause is commonly used after the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable in heroic verse. In Alexandrine it is chiefly used after the sixth. Verses of less than ten syllables have not necessarily any full cæsural pause, but *may* have one after any syllable.

After the fourth; as,

The silver eel″ in shining volumes rolled.

After the fifth; as,

Round broken columns″ clasping ivy twined;
O'er heaps of ruin″ stalked the stately hind.

After the sixth; as,

Thus we the wingéd hours″ in harmless mirth
And joys unsullied pass″, till humid night, —

A benevolent deed′ is the essence of beauty.

The semi-cæsura forms a semi-pause with the full cæsura. When a verse takes the semi-cæsura at all, it takes two, marked here by single accents; as,

Glows′ while he reads″, but trembles′ as he writes.
Reason′ the card″, but passion′ is the gale.
Who heaves′ old ocean″, and who wings′ the storm.

Heroic and Alexandrine verse may have the two semi-cæsuras, without a full cæsura; as,

And place′ on good security′ his gold.
Your own′ resistless eloquence′ employ.

That Philosophy′, drawing from heaven′ her birth,
Is the science′ of healing the woes′ upon earth.

EXAMPLES OF CÆSURAL PAUSES.

See the bold youth″ strain up the threat'ning steep,
Rush through the thickets″, down the valleys sweep!

Not half so swift″ the trembling doves can fly
When the fierce eagle″ cleaves the liquid sky;
Not half so swiftly″ the fierce eagle moves
When through the clouds″ he drives the trembling doves.

Warms′ in the sun″; refreshes′ in the breeze;
Glows′ in the stars″, and blossoms′ in the trees;
Lives′ through all life″; extends′ through all extent;
Spreads′ undivided″; operates′ unspent.

The full cæsura and semi-cæsura in minor verse; as,

In peace″, Love tunes′ the shepherd's reed;
In war″, he mounts′ the warrior's steed;
In halls″, in gay attire′ is seen;
In hamlets″, dances on the green.

Softly sweet″ in Lydian measures,
Soon′ he soothed his soul′ to pleasures.

Soft is the strain″ when Zephyr gently blows,
And the smooth verse″ in smoother numbers flows.

Round′ a holy calm′ diffusing,
Love of peace″, and lonely musing.

APPENDIX.

For convenient reference, the declension of nouns and pronouns, the comparison of adjectives, and the conjugation of verbs, are here repeated in tabular form.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS. (See p. 41.)

SINGULAR.

Nom.	girl,	lady,	valley,	ox,	Henry,
Poss.	girl's,	lady's,	valley's,	ox's,	Henry's,
Obj.	girl.	lady.	valley.	ox.	Henry.

PLURAL.

Nom.	girls,	ladies,	valleys,	oxen,
Poss.	girls',	ladies',	valleys',	oxen's,
Obj.	girls.	ladies.	valleys.	oxen.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS. (See p. 40.)

SINGULAR.

	First Person.	*Second Person.* Common Style.	*Second Person.* Solemn Style.
Nom.	I,	you,	thou,
Poss.	my or mine,	your,	thy or thine,
Obj.	me.	you.	thee.

PLURAL.

Nom.	we,	you,	ye,
Poss.	our,	your,	your,
Obj.	us.	you.	you.

THIRD PERSON, SINGULAR.

	Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*
Nom.	he,	she,	it,
Poss.	his,	her,	its,
Obj.	him.	her.	it.

PLURAL.

Nom.	they,	they,	they,
Poss.	their,	their,	their,
Obj.	them.	them.	them.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES. (See p. 85.)

REGULARLY COMPARED.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
rich,	richer,	richest.
useful,	more useful,	most useful.
happy,	happier,	happiest.
happy,	more happy,	most happy.
happy.	less happy.	least happy.

IRREGULARLY COMPARED.

good,	better,	best.
bad, ill, or evil,	worse,	worst.
little,	less,	least.
late.	later or latter.	latest or last.

REMARK. Some adverbs are compared like adjectives.

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS. (See p. 103.)

Nom.	who,	which,	that,
Poss.	whose,	whose,	
Obj.	whom.	which.	that.

REMARK. The relative pronouns are the same in both numbers.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS. (See p. 72.)

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present.	*Past.*	*Imperfect Participle.*	*Perfect Participle.*
see.	saw.	seeing.	seen.

SIMPLE ACTIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE — PRESENT.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I see,	We see,
2. You see,	You see,
3. He sees.	They see.

Solemn style — *Thou seest.*

PAST.

1. I saw,	We saw,
2. You saw,	You saw,
3. He saw.	They saw.

S. S. — *Thou sawest.*

FUTURE.

1. I shall or will see,	We shall or will see,
2. You shall or will see,	You shall or will see,
3. He shall or will see.	They shall or will see.

S. S. — *Thou shalt or wilt see.*

PERFECT.

1. I have seen,	We have seen,
2. You have seen,	You have seen,
3. He has seen.	They have seen.

S. S. — *Thou hast seen.*

PAST PERFECT.

1. I had seen,	We had seen,
2. You had seen,	You had seen,
3. He had seen.	They had seen.

S. S. — *Thou hadst seen.*

FUTURE PERFECT.

1. I shall have seen,	We shall have seen,
2. You will have seen,	You will have seen,
3. He will have seen.	They will have seen.

S. S. — *Thou wilt have seen.*

REM. The Emphatic form is used in the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods, and sometimes in the Imperative.

PRESENT.

1. I do see,	We do see,
2. You do see,	You do see,
3. He does see.	They do see.

S. S. — *Thou dost see.*

PAST.

1. I did see,	We did see,
2. You did see,	You did see,
3. He did see.	They did see.

S. S. — *Thou didst see.*

REM. *Do* and *did* are also used in the Interrogative form; as, Do you see? Did he see? *Dost thou see? Did ye see?*

POTENTIAL — PRESENT.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may, can, or must see,	We may, can, or must see,
2. You may, can, or must see,	You may, can, or must see,
3. He may, can, or must see.	They may, can, or must see.

S. S. — *Thou mayst, canst, or must see.*

PAST.

1. I might, could, would, or should see,	We might, could, would, or should see,
2. You might, could, would, or should see,	You might, could, would, or should see,
2. He might, could, would, or should see.	They might, could, would, or should see.

S. S. — *Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst see.*

PERFECT.

1. I may, can, or must have seen,	We may, can, or must have seen,
2. You may, can, or must have seen,	You may, can, or must have seen,
3. He may, can, or must have seen.	They may, can. or must have seen.

S. S. — *Thou mayst, canst, or must have seen.*

PAST PERFECT.

1.	I might, could, would, or should have seen,	We might, could, would, or should have seen,
2.	You might, could, would, or should have seen,	You might, could, would, or should have seen,
3.	He might, could, would, or should have seen.	They might, could, would, or should have seen.

S. S. — *Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have seen.*

IMPERATIVE — PRESENT.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
2.	See, or See thou or you.	See, or See you.

EMPHATIC FORM.

2. Do see, or Do thou or you see. Do see, or Do you see.

INFINITIVE.

Present — To see. *Perfect* — To have seen.

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect — Seeing. *Perfect* — Seen.

Compound Perfect — Having seen.

NOTE. — The Indicative and Potential forms, when used in dependent clauses, to express a condition, are said to be in the Subjunctive mood. The *peculiar* form of the Subjunctive is gradually dropping out of use.

PASSIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE — PRESENT.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I am seen,	We are seen,
2.	You are seen,	You are seen,
3.	He is seen.	They are seen.

S. S. — *Thou art seen.*

PAST.

1.	I was seen,	We were seen,
2.	You were seen,	You were seen,
3.	He was seen.	They were seen.

S. S. — *Thou wast seen.*

FUTURE.

1.	I shall or will be seen,	We shall or will be seen,
2.	You shall or will be seen,	You shall or will be seen,
3.	He shall or will be seen.	They shall or will be seen.

S. S. — *Thou shalt or wilt be seen.*

PERFECT.

1.	I have been seen,	We have been seen,
2.	You have been seen,	You have been seen,
3.	He has been seen.	They have been seen.

S. S. — *Thou hast been seen.*

PAST PERFECT.

1.	I had been seen,	We had been seen,
2.	You had been seen,	You had been seen,
3.	He had been seen.	They had been seen.

S. S. — *Thou hadst been seen.*

FUTURE PERFECT.

1.	I shall have been seen,	We shall have been seen,
2.	You will have been seen,	You will have been seen,
3.	He will have been seen.	They will have been seen.

S. S. — *Thou wilt have been seen.*

POTENTIAL — PRESENT.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	I may, can, or must be seen,	We may, can, or must be seen,
2.	You may, can, or must be seen,	You may, can, or must be seen,
3.	He may, can, or must be seen.	They may, can, or must be seen.

S. S. — *Thou mayst, canst, or must be seen.*

PAST.

1.	I might, could, would, or should be seen,	We might, could, would, or should be seen,
2.	You might, could, would, or should be seen,	You might, could, would, or should be seen,
3.	He might, could, would, or should be seen.	They might, could, would, or should be seen.

S. S. — *Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be seen.*

PERFECT.

1.	I may, can, or must have been seen,	We may, can, or must have been seen,
2.	You may, can, or must have been seen,	You may, can, or must have been seen,
3.	He may, can, or must have been seen.	They may, can, or must have been seen.

S. S. — *Thou mayst, canst, or must have been seen.*

PAST PERFECT.

1.	I might, could, would, or should have been seen,	We might, could, would, or should have been seen,
2.	You might, could, would, or should have been seen,	You might, could, would, or should have been seen,
3.	He might, could, would, or should have been seen.	They might, could, would, or should have been seen.

S. S. — *Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been seen.*

SUBJUNCTIVE — PRESENT.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
1.	If I be seen,	If we be seen,
2.	If you be seen,	If you be seen,
3.	If he be seen.	If they be seen.

PAST.

1.	If I were seen,	If we were seen,
2.	If you were seen,	If you were seen,
3.	If he were seen.	If they were seen.

S. S. — *If thou wert seen.*

NOTE. — The peculiar form of the Subjunctive is used more in the Passive than in the Active form, especially in the past tense.

IMPERATIVE — PRESENT.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
2.	Be seen, or Be thou or you seen.	Be seen, or Be you seen.

EMPHATIC FORM.

2.	Do be seen, or Do thou or you be seen.	Do be seen, or Do you be seen.

INFINITIVE.

Present — To be seen. *Perfect* — To have been seen.

GRAMMATICAL ERRORS,

TO BE CORRECTED.

An offence against grammatical purity consists either in the violation of a rule of Syntax, the violation of a principle in Etymology, or in not using a word according to its true meaning.

A fault in regard to construction — that is, the violation of a rule of Syntax — is called a *solecism.*

A fault in regard to form or inflection — that is, the violation of a principle in Etymology — is called a *barbarism.*

A fault in regard to the settled meaning of words is called an *impropriety.*

REM. In the following exercises, let the pupil first make the correction, and then state in what the offence consists.

EXAMPLES.

Between you and I, there is much truth in the report.

Corrected: "Between you and me," &c.

A violation of the 17th rule of Syntax, — hence a *solecism.*

William has broke the chair.

Corrected: "William has broken the chair."

A violation of the etymological principle, that the "Perfect tense is formed by prefixing have or has to the *perfect participle,*" — hence a *barbarism.*

I learned him how to do it.

Corrected: "I taught him how to do it."

A fault in regard to the meaning of the word, — hence an *impropriety.*

EXERCISES.

The man is neither great or good.

My Christian and surname begin and end with the same letters.

There's the books you wanted.

The vice of covetousness is what enters deepest into the soul of any other.

I am not so good a scholar as him.

They have done much more than us.

He has ran from the house into the garden.

When I was as young as her I could sing better than her.

The man called on me, agreeable to promise.

You must think very mean of me, if you suppose I done that. It was him who you consider your friend.

A man ought to live suitable to his station.

Every one of those boys are idle, when they ought to study.

Neither William nor John were present. You was there at that time.

Stephen, looking directly at me, says, Did you speak to me? No, says I.

Those kind of expressions should be avoided.

Seven and five is twelve, and four is sixteen.

Who is there? Me.

Was that you, or him?

How are you to-day? I am miserably.

James and Henry have gone to their uncle's and aunt's party.

That is William's and my book.

The committee which was chosen yesterday were in session this morning.

I am as old, or older than you.

I told him that you was present.

That dress looks beautifully.

Such an one as he hadn't ought to be encouraged.

The man had broke his arm.

The ladies' bonnet was on her head.

John asked William and I to visit him.

There is often much truth, wisdom, and point in a proverb.

Nobody can tell him nothing that he didn't know.

The teacher told his pupils, that they or he was in the wrong.

He was a very quiet and an agreeable man.

Dr. Channing was an Unitarian.

England is governed by a hereditary sovereign.

Each of you must attend to those things for yourselves.

The teacher told each of the scholars to take the seat that belonged to them.

The man did not believe that there was a God.

I see William yesterday, as I was coming to school.

John has wore that hat this two years.

None but he could ride that horse.

If I had have thought of it, I should have done the errand.

Our minister knows more than any man I ever saw.

Blank verse consists of measured lines of ten syllables each, and which may or may not end with the same sound.

William has seen as much, perhaps more, of the world than I.

Most all men that knew the facts, and who were not prejudiced, believed him innocent.

Henry come very near getting into the High School.

The education of every part of a child's nature is actually begun as early as the age for their first school days.

The United States send their ships of war to almost all parts of the world.

England protects every one of her citizens, wherever they are.

So slow is advancement made, that we sometimes almost despair.

He must carry this process out much more fully, so as to lead every learner to construct the language for himself, word by word, till he shall have used all their parts of speech, with all their varieties and modifications.

I did not know as you were aware of your own faults.

You did not say but what you saw him.

The jury, after being out all night, have returned a verdict of guilty.

After dinner, I laid down on the sofa.

He ordered the book to be lain upon the table, and set down to read.

Father with mother and all the children are going to New York.

Virtue is more preferable than riches.

Earnest and patient application ensure success.

My brother and myself are going.

I asked father to let William and I go to school.

It never has, nor will be believed.

Washington, as well as many other revolutionary patriots, were great and good men.

The pages of history does not furnish a better example of integrity, if so good, as Washington.

He speaks exactly like you do.

Directly I spoke to him, he run away.

William give me the knife, and I sold it.

For all the blessings of life, we should render thanks to our Father who art in heaven.

There is no degree of goodness to which we may not aspire, and reasonably hope to acquire.

New York is the largest city of any other in the United States.

NOTE. Let the teacher write the ungrammatical sentences that occur in his pupils' recitations, and he will probably have exercises enough for correction.

Recommendations and Notices

OF

TOWER'S INTELLECTUAL ALGEBRA.

The subscribers, Principals in the Department of Mathematics in the Public Schools of Boston, have examined D. B. Tower's "*Intellectual Algebra*," and are well pleased with the Work. They believe that the careful and minute analysis of questions in it is calculated to train the mind of the pupil to correct habits of investigation, and they cordially recommend it to the consideration of those interested in education.

Peter Mackintosh, Jr.	James Robinson,
Levi Conant,	Aaron D. Capen,
Josiah Fairbank,	Nathan Merrill,
Reuben Swan, Jr.	John A. Harris,
Loring Lathrop,	Charles Kimball,
Joseph Hale,	William A. Shephard
Jonathan Battles, Jr.	Benjamin Drew, Jr.

June 28th, 1845.

Boston, June 30th, 1845.

We have examined the "*Intellectual Algebra*," by D. B. Tower, and we are glad to find that the hitherto perplexing science of Algebra is so simplified and so clearly illustrated, as to render it easily attainable by the younger classes of children.

Mr. Tower has the merit of originality in his conception of an "*Intellectual Algebra*." The value of this work is much enhanced, not merely from the fact that the author ranks high as a Mathematician; but in an especial manner, since he has been a successful Teacher in this department, and is thoroughly versed in the best modes of presenting the subject to the minds of his pupils in the various forms of practical instruction.

The work is systematic in its arrangement; it contains all that will be useful in Common Schools, and is just what is wanted to make a *thinking* pupil. We can, therefore, commend it to the notice and patronage of Teachers, Parents, and School Committees; believing that where it is used the pupils will acquire not only a competent knowledge of Algebra, but, at the same time, they will be making as much progress in Arithmetic, as they could, if required to give their *exclusive* attention to the best text-books now used in Oral Arithmetic.

Cornelius Walker,	Richard G. Parker,
Samuel Barrett,	W. J. Adams,
Abner Forbes,	Frederick Crafts,
Charles B. Sherman,	Albert Bowker,
Thomas Baker,	Josiah A. Stearns,
Joshua Bates, Jr.,	Isaac F. Shepard,
George B. Hyde,	*Grammar Masters*

CHARLESTOWN, JULY 11, 1845.

Dear Sir,—I have the pleasure to inform you that after a careful examination on the part of our Board of Trustees, of your "*Intellectual Algebra*," it was unanimously voted to introduce it into our Grammar Schools. Some of our Teachers have thoroughly examined the book, and speak in high terms of its merits.

Respectfully yours, JONATHAN BROWN, JR.,
Secretary

To D. B. TOWER, Esq.

Mr. PIERCE, the experienced Principal of the Normal School, West Newton, June 26th, writes, "I am so well pleased with it (the Algebra), that I propose to introduce it into the Model School next Term."

CHELSEA, JULY 9, 1845.

Mr. Tower,—Dear Sir: I have examined your "*Intellectual Algebra*," and I should be much gratified at its introduction into the School under my charge. I find the mental exercises in the Arithmetic we use altogether inadequate, and am confident that the introduction of your work, at this stage of the scholar's progress, will enable him to understand the science of Arithmetic much better and more easily than he can now do.

Respectfully, QUINCY ADAMS.

CHARLESTOWN, JULY 8, 1845.

Mr. Tower,—Dear Sir: Your work on "*Intellectual Algebra*," we have examined with much interest, and a high degree of pleasure The idea of the work is excellent, and the arrangement, we think, is good.

It is the first book of the kind that we have seen, and it appears to be well calculated to supply *a deficiency* in the class of books for the intellectual training of the youthful mind. A more interesting, useful, and important work could hardly have been devised, and it cannot fail, we think, to meet the approbation of Teachers and friends of education.

Very respectfully, P. H. SWEETSER,
Principal of Grammar Department of Harvard School.
DANIEL H. FORBES,
Principal of Grammar Department of Warren School
A. WALKER,
Principal of Grammar Department of Winthrop School.

CHARLESTOWN, JULY 19, 1845.

We have examined, carefully and with much satisfaction, Tower's '*Intellectual Algebra*," which bears the same relation to the Algebraic text-books in common use, as that sustained by "Colburn's First Lessons" to previous treatises upon Arithmetic—and we think that every one who has made use of that excellent work, cannot fail to regard this as the highest commendation. We are highly gratified

to learn that the Trustees have introduced the work into the Schools under our care.

BENJAMIN F. TWEED,
Principal of Bunker Hill School.
JOSEPH T. SWAN,
Principal of Mathematical Department of Warren School
STACY BAXTER,
Principal of Mathematical Department of Winthrop School.

From Professor Forbes, Civil Engineer, formerly Principal of the High School in Lowell.

LOWELL, JULY 21, 1845.

Dear Sir—I have examined your "*Intellectual Algebra*" with interest; and I believe it will be found highly useful in giving to the young habits of thinking attentively, and of reasoning with precision—two of the most desirable results of education. Your book is the best of its kind that I have seen.

Very respectfully Yours, FRANKLIN FORBES.

DAVID B. TOWER, Esq.

SALEM, JULY 12, 1845.

D. B. Tower, Esq.—Dear Sir: I have examined with much attention your "*Intellectual Algebra.*" I think the plan of the work is excellent; and so far as I have examined, the filling up is equally good. I suspect you have done for Algebra a service not very unlike what Colburn did for Arithmetic, when he published his "*First Lessons.*" I have requested our School Committee to allow me to put it into the hands of my Junior Class, as a preparatory study.

Yours, very respectfully, RUFUS PUTNAM,
Principal of the Bowditch English High School, Salem, Mass.

Boston Daily Journal.

The plan of this work is altogether new—it contemplates the improvement in the mode of teaching Algebra, that Colburn introduced into Arithmetic some twenty years ago, viz.—by *oral* exercises, in which all the operations are limited to such small numbers as not to embarrass the reasoning powers, but on the *inductive plan*, to lead the pupil, understandingly, step by step, to higher mental efforts. * * * * We think its merits will be found to entitle it to admission into our schools as a valuable aid to the Teachers in giving instruction in Algebra to our youthful readers.

Mass. Temperance Standard, Aug. 1, 1845.

We have looked over this work with much interest. To most persons, the idea of the study of Algebra, is that of a hard, dry, useless task; and formerly this idea was in the main correct. Some of the early treatises on this subject seem to have been intended to convey the little information they contained, in as blind a method as possible. But Warren Colburn, by his excellent treatise, made the translation from the study of Arithmetic to that of Algebra, easy

and delightful. Not content with this advance, Mr. Tower has now prepared a treatise, which is designed to hold the same position in reference to Algebra that Mr. Colburn's "*Intellectual Arithmetic*" does to Arithmetic—that is, to make it one of the most elementary studies in common schools. The idea seems to us a good one. There is nothing in the nature of Algebra to render it a difficult study. If any one doubts this statement, let him read over Mr. Tower's book, and he will be sceptical no longer. But what is of still higher importance, the child by these steps, which seem so pleasant and simple, is learning the greatest of all arts—that of reasoning. In this age of loose reasoners, every man who does anything to direct the minds of the young to habits of closer investigation and analysis, does a service to the community which cannot easily be over-rated. In this respect it gives us great pleasure to recommend the little treatise of Mr. Tower.

Boston Messenger, July 31, 1845.

"*Intellectual Algebra;* or, Oral Exercises in Algebra, for Common Schools—in which all the operations are limited to such small numbers as not to embarrass the reasoning powers, but, on the inductive plan, to lead the pupil understandingly, step by step, to higher mental efforts, adapted to prepare the pupil for the study of mental Arithmetic, and designed to be introductory to higher treatises on Algebra."

There is no class of Works in which the public are more deeply interested than in School Books, and when good ones are published, the author should be encouraged, and receive the com mendation that his labors deserve. It is with this feeling that we always notice school books, and in the present instance we are happy in being able to speak favorably of a valuable addition to our stock of books, on a most interesting and important study, which, by means of this treatise, may be introduced with the greatest advantage into our public schools. We will only add, that the plan of the author is admirably executed.

The able Editor of the *Christian Reflector*, who was selected from the Boston School Committee to examine the Mathematical Department of their Schools, and who has just completed that arduous task, says of Tower's "*Intellectual Algebra*"—

"This is a new text-book, on a new plan, which we greatly admire. It is to the Algebraic science very much such a work as was Colburn's '*First Arithmetic*' to the science of common numbers. We observe that it is commended by experienced teachers. We shall certainly favor its adoption in the Mathematical department of the Schools of Boston, and recommend it to the attention of School Committees throughout the country.'

SALEM, JULY 26, 1845.

Mr. David B. Tower,—Dear Sir: It is thought by most Teachers at present, that children have not commenced the study of Arithmetic aright and radically, unless they have begun with "Colburn's First Lessons," or some other book of oral exercises. It appears to us that it is equally important that *Algebra* should be thus commenced. We rejoice to see a work of this kind from your hands; and the wonder is, that it has not entered the brain of some one before, to put one forth. Your "*Intellectual Algebra*," in our humble opinion, is a happy conception, and a design well executed,—leading the mind on by very easy and gradual steps, and by clear illustrations. We regard Algebra as an interesting and important study for children, and well calculated to aid their progress in common Arithmetic. We think, that if the merits of the study, and of your little book, are duly appreciated, it will be widely introduced into the Schools of our land.

Yours with esteem,

EDWIN JOCELYN,
Principal of F. High School

CHARLES NORTHEND,
Principal of Epes School

D. P. GALLOUP,
Principal of Hacker School

A. C. SMITH,
Principal of Philip's School

J. B. FAIRFIELD,
Principal of Browne School

From Boston Recorder, July 31, 1845.

This work was prepared, the author informs us, for the use of the *blind* under his charge, and is now printed in hope that it may prove useful to the seeing. It is on the "inductive plan," and is believed to supply a deficiency in the books provided for young pupils. The operations are limited to small numbers, and lead the pupil on step by step towards higher mental efforts. The plan, and the execution of it, cannot fail to meet the approbation of Teachers.

BOSTON, SEPT., 15, 1845.

D. B. Tower, Esq.,—Dear Sir:—I have examined your "*Intellectual Algebra*," and cheerfully concur in the opinion expressed in the recommendation of the Principals of the Public Schools in Boston.

Very respectfully yours,

R. W. WRIGHT,
Principal of the department of Mathematics in the Adams School

The following is from the Principal of the celebrated Private School in Roxbury, one of the best in this country.

David B. Tower, Esq.,—Dear Sir: I have examined your "*Intellectual Algebra*" with some care and attention, and am much pleased with the plan and execution of the work. I think it admirably adapted for the early training of youthful minds in mathematics. I shall introduce it forthwith into my school.

Very truly and sincerely yours,

DANIEL LEACH.

Roxbury, August, 6, 1845.

From E. G. Storke, Esq., County Superintendent of Cayuga County

AUBURN, SEPT. 20, 1845.

Messrs Paine & Burgess,—The examination of "Towers' Intellectual Algebra" led me to remark that it was a work which I could cheerfully and heartily recommend, for its intrinsic value and excellence; and I avail myself of the first opportunity of doing so.

I regard it as the legitimate successor of Colburn's First Lessons, and it will, in my opinion, prove as valuable to the student of Algebra as that has been to the student of Arithmetic. It divests the science of its mystery and repulsiveness, and brings its *principles* clearly before the mental vision, so simplified and illustrated, that they can be readily comprehended by most pupils of from ten to twelve years of age.

I therefore hail with pleasure, this new and valuable incentive to *mental exercise* in our Schools, and am satisfied that the work has but to be examined to be approved and adopted. It is peculiarly adapted to the use of Common Schools, and to facilitate its introduction, we shall give the members of our Teachers' Institute, which is soon to convene, daily and thorough exercises in it.

Respectfully and truly Yours, E. G. STORKE.

BOSTON, SEPT. 23, 1845.

Dear Sir,—Having been absent from the city several months, I did not receive, so soon as I otherwise should, the copy of your book, the "Intellectual Algebra," which you did me the honor to send to my house. I have examined the book within a few days; and in my humble opinion, it is admirably adapted to the purposes for which it is intended.

It seems to me, you have very happily applied the "charms of logic" to that beautiful and much neglected study of Algebra, and if such a book could be freely introduced into our Common Schools I doubt not it would do more than almost anything else to invigorate and concentrate the intellectual powers of the young.

With much respect, your obliged servant,

JOHN T. SARGENT

DAVID B. TOWER, ESQ.

IMPORTANT SCHOOL-BOOKS

PUBLISHED BY CROSBY, NICHOLS, LEE & CO.,

117 Washington Street, Boston.

TOWER'S GRADUAL SERIES.

READERS.

FIRST READER. The Gradual Primer, or Primary School Enunciator. Price, 14 cts
SECOND READER. Introduction to the Gradual Reader. Price, ... 25 cts.
INTERMEDIATE READER. Primary School First Class Book, ... 25 cts.
THIRD READER. The Gradual Reader. Price, ... 34 cts.
FOURTH READER. A Sequel to the Gradual Reader. Price, ... 50 cts.
FIFTH READER. The North American Second Class Reader. Price, ... 63 cts.
SIXTH READER. The North American First Class Reader. Price, ... 84 cts.

GRAMMARS.

ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR; or, First Lessons in Language. By D. B. Tower, and B. F. Tweed. Price, ... 25 cts.
GRADUAL LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By Tower and Tweed. Price, 56 cts.
GRAMMAR OF COMPOSITION. By Tower and Tweed. Price, ... 67 cts.

ALGEBRA.

INTELLECTUAL ALGEBRA; or, Oral Exercises in Algebra, for Common Schools, 42 cts.
KEY TO TOWER'S ALGEBRA. Price, ... 42 cts.

SPELLER.

THE GRADUAL SPELLER AND COMPLETE ENUNCIATOR. Price, ... 17 cts.

ARTICULATION.

EXERCISES IN ARTICULATION. By David B. Tower, A. M. Price, ... 12 cts.

"*The vest work extant for teaching Pronunciation*" *is said, by* J. D. Philbrick, Esq., *to be*

A Practical Guide to English Pronunciation. For the Use of Schools. With an Alphabetical List, to accompany the Pronouncing Guide. By Edward J. Stearns, A. M. 16mo. Price, ... 30 cts.

A work just introduced into the schools of Boston, and many other places, filling an entirely new and important place in education, and receiving the highest praise from the most competent judges.

"The Master of one of the largest Grammar Schools in Boston says:—'The introduction of Mr. Stearns's 'Guide' into our Boston Schools affords universal and eminent satisfaction. The masters and teachers are unanimous in according their approval.'"

"'Mr. Stearns's book ought to be adopted at once into every grammar school, high school, and academy in the land.'—*North American Review.*"

Book-keeping by Single and Double Entry. Adapted to Payson, Dunton and Scribner's Combined System of Penmanship. By L. B. Hanaford, A. M., and J. W. Payson, Principals of the Boston Mercantile Academy. 8vo. Price, ... 75 cts.

Day-Book, Two Ledgers, Cash and Journal. Price, ... 33 cts.

Book-keeping for High Schools and Academies, on the same plan, by the same authors.

This work is designed to follow the System of Penmanship so well known and so deservedly popular throughout the United States. It combines instruction in both Book-keeping and Penmanship, the Exercises being fac-similes of the beautiful style of writing taught in the copy-books.

Analytic Grammar of the English Language. For the use of Schools. By I. H. Nutting, A. M., M. D., Principal of Mount Hollis Seminary. 12mo. . . . . 25 cts.

Treatise on English Punctuation. By John Wilson; 16mo. Price, ... $1.00

The Elements of Punctuation; with Rules on the Use of Capital Letters. Being an Abridgment of the "Treatise on English Punctuation." Prepared for Schools. By John Wilson. Twelfth Edition. 12mo. Price, ... 50 cts.

French Translation Self-Taught. By Guillaume H. Talbot. 12mo. . . . $1 00

Gleanings from the Poets. For Home and School. 1 vol. 12mo. Price, . . . $1 00

The School Hymn-Book. For Normal, High, and Grammar Schools. Price, 37½ cts.

The School Exhibition Book. 12mo. Price, ... 25 cts.

The American School Hymn-Book. Eightieth Thousand. 32mo. Price, . 20 cts.

The School Journal. 4to. Price, ... 20 cts.

Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Combined System of Rapid Penmanship.

A National Series of Copy-Books, extensively used in every State in the Union. This Series of Books is comprised in *eleven parts*, with copies at the head of each page, in a most beautiful style, exactly resembling a copy set by the authors with a pen. A Chirographic Chart accompanies the system, rendering it one of the most perfect, complete, and methodical systems of Penmanship ever published.

☞ Copies of the above works furnished for examination, free of postage, for two thirds of the price. Specimen numbers of the Penmanship will be sent gratis.